IRELAND

THE

CASE OF IRELAND STATED

HISTORICALLY,

FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT;

TOGETHER WITH

A GAZETTEER,

GEOGRAPHICAL, DESCRIPTIVE AND STATISTICAL, COMPILED FROM THE LATEST AND BEST AUTHORITIES.

"The mere Irish were not only accounted aliens, but enemies, and altogether out of the protection of the law, so as it was no capital offense to kill them."—SIR JOHN DAVIES.

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PUBLISHER'S PREFACE.

LATE in the fall of 1879, when the wail of Irish woe, caused by evictions, and the cry of famine had reached the shores of this Western World,—while Parnell and Dillon were crossing the Atlantic for the purpose of telling to the American people the sad story of Ireland's pressing need; the questions on every tongue were: Why this ever-recurring misery in a land so bountiful? What is the cause? Where is the remedy?

Simple questions, these; and almost every Irishman, feels that he knows himself, yet how few can give a prompt, satisfactory and laconic answer.

Many an Irishman, yet living, is the victim of that villainous law of civilizing England, which made it a crime punishable by death, to teach or be taught the use of the alphabet in any language;—others who escaped partially from the operations of this accursed enactment bore with them that other accompanying legacy of English civilization to Ireland—*penury*. They had neither the means to purchase, nor the time to peruse the scattered chapters of Irish history.

They were cast upon the world naked of everything, as it were. Their lands were stolen. Their goods were stolen. Their arts, their language, their literature, their manufactures, their music, their religion, their very names

were prohibited. Their women and children were barbarously slaughtered, stolen and transported to the Indies, and by an act of the English Pale Law, their very manhood was assailed, and a large class of the population were to be mutilated. But worse than any, or all of these things put together—the mind—the intellect—the soul—the soul that represents the very God, was to be degraded, debased and destroyed by the laws, not only of Protestant England, but also of Catholic England.

Nor did the name or profession of any special religious belief have any effect to debar the robber, when he found anything to steal. Catholic, or Protestant were robbed alike. In the one case it was spiritual fidelity to Rome—in the other it was fidelity to Ireland—both called treason to England. But whatever the pretense for a cause, the result was always the same—the transfer of all their earthly possessions to the despoiler, and whenever it was possible, the act was consummated by the life-blood of the victim. Nor were the earlier English land robbers more fortunate, in many cases, than the native; the land robber of one reign often became the victim of the land robber of another reign, until in time, the forfeitures and confiscations amounted to more than three times the surface of the entire Island.

At a casual meeting of a few Irishmen in Chicago,—about this time,—it was proposed to prepare an inexpensive volume, not aspiring to the dignity of consecutive history, but merely a glance at the record of England's doings in Ireland, so as satisfactorily to answer the questions propounded, in the smallest number of words—to show whereby the laws of England established a system of land-robbery from which sprang most of the evils

which afflict the Island, "*even unto the present day*," with the accompanying laws against commerce, manufactures, coinage, fisheries, mining, and education.

The writers of this sketch of Irish history are well-known gentlemen, well versed in history and literature, and their statements may be accepted without question. The present volume is to meet an immediate want, namely, a plain statement of the present question agitating all Ireland.

Should circumstances justify, it is proposed to make this volume the first of a series of AN HISTORICAL IRISH LIBRARY; not a library in the present acceptation of that word, nor perhaps strictly historical—as it may have an occasional poetic tinge—but a series of books uniform in size, style and price, and of such useful material as will enable not only the Irishman in America, but also those "of the manor born," to learn something of a people, and a land, who though victims of the most adverse circumstances for centuries, have nevertheless filled no small space in the world's history.

P. T. SHERLOCK,
Publisher.

CHICAGO, January, 1880.

"The lion of St. Jarlath's, Catholic Archbishop of Tuam. . . . . surveys with an envious eye. . . . . the Irish exodus . . . . *and sighs over the departing demons of assassination and murder!* . . . So complete is the rush of departing marauders, whose lives were profitably occupied in shooting Protestants from behind a hedge, that silence reigns over the vast solitude of Ireland. . . . Just as civilization gradually supercedes the wilder and fiercer creatures by men and cities, so de-civilization, such as is going on in Ireland, wipes out mankind to make room for oxen."

For this characteristic Saxon yelping over the expatriation and destruction of a million and a half of the Irish people caused by fever and famine, see *Saturday Review*, London, Nov. 28th, 1863.

"Ill fares the land to hastening ills a prey,
Where wealth accumulates and men decay;
Princes and lords may flourish or may fade—
A breath can make them as a breath has made;
But a bold peasantry, a country's pride,
When once destroyed can never be supplied."

STATISTICS OF IRELAND.

HER GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION—SURFACE, RIVERS, LAKES, CLIMATE, BOTANY, ZOOLOGY AND GEOLOGY, POLITICAL, MILITARY AND JUDICIAL DIVISIONS OF THE COUNTRY, CENSUS OF THE POPULATION, ETC.

IRELAND is an island on the north-west of Europe, latitude from 51° 26′ to 55°21′ North, longitude 5° 20′ to 10° 26′ West. It is surrounded by the Atlantic Ocean on all sides except where it is separated from Great Britain by St. George's Channel, forty-seven miles across where narrowest; the Irish sea, one hundred and thirty-eight miles; and the Northern Channel, thirteen miles. Its shape is a rhomboid, the greatest diagonal of which is three hundred and two miles, and the lesser, two hundred and ten miles; the greatest length on a meridional line is two hundred and twenty-five miles; the greatest breadth one hundred and seventy-four miles, and the least, on parallel lines of latitude, one hundred and eleven miles, comprising an area of 32,509⅝ square miles.

COASTS AND HARBORS.—The Northern, Western and Southern coasts are indented with numerous deep and safe bays; the Eastern side presents but few suited for large vessels. The total number has been estimated at fourteen capable of harboring the largest men-of-war, fourteen for frigates, from thirty to forty for coasting vessels, twenty-five good summer roadsteads, besides innumerable inlets for fishing and coasting craft.

THE ISLANDS are numerous but small; total number one hundred and ninety-six; the largest are Rathlin

and Tory, north; Achill, Clare, the South Arran Isles and Valentia, west; and Whiddy and Cape Clear, south.

SURFACE.—The greater part of the surface is a plain, not strictly level, being mostly interspersed with low hills. The principal mountains are: Northeast, the Mourne mountains, in the county Down, the highest being Slieve Donald, 2,796 feet above high sea level; in the west, the mountains surrounding Clew bay, in Mayo county, the highest, called Muilrea, 2,638 feet high; in the southwest the McGillicuddy Reeks, in Kerry county, the highest called Garran-Tual, 3,414 feet high; in the east, the Wicklow mountains, the highest named, Lugganaquilla, 3,039 feet high. The interior of the country is intersected by several lofty ranges, among which the Devil's Bit, Slieve Bloom, the Galtees, Mount Leinster and the Black Stairs, are the most remarkable.

The quantities of land of different elevations, are between sea level and two hundred and fifty feet in height, 13,242$\frac{3}{4}$ square miles; between two hundred and fifty and five hundred feet, 11,797$\frac{1}{8}$; between five hundred and one thousand feet, 5,797$\frac{1}{8}$; between one and two thousand feet, 1,589$\frac{5}{8}$; above two thousand feet, 82$\frac{1}{4}$.

THE RIVERS are numerous; the principal is the Shannon, one hundred and fifty miles long, from Lough Allen to Limerick, where it expands into an estuary of forty-five miles, opening into the Atlantic Ocean; it is navigable nearly the whole of its course. The Suir, Barrow, Nore, Blackwater, Slaney, Boyne, Foyle, Erne, Lee, Bandon, Bawn, and Moy, are all navigable to a greater or less extent; smaller rivers, in numbers about one hundred and seventy-two, serving principally for agricultural and domestic purposes, are to be met with in every district. The extent of country which forms the basin whence the principal rivers derive their supply, covers 22,030 square miles.

THE LAKES, generally called Loughs, are numerous, the largest Lough Neagh, in Ulster, covers 98,255 acres. There are also Lough Erne, Corrib, Mask, Conn, and the celebrated Lakes of Killarney.

GEOLOGY.—The geological structure of Ireland has

this striking peculiarity, that most of the great mountain ranges are near the coasts, while the central portion is an almost uniform plain, varied only by low hills. The prevailing formations are limestone, granite, mica-slate, clay-slate, old red sandstone, yellow sandstone, and basalt or trap. The limestone extends over the central plain, one hundred and fifty miles east and west from Dublin to Galway Bay, and one hundred and twenty miles north and south. Its greatest elevation is three hundred feet, which is the heighth of the summit levels of the canals that traverse it. The principal tracts of granite are those of Wicklow, Galway, Newry and Donegal. The mica-slate of Leinster is confined to a narrow fringe edging the granite region of the province; in Donegal and Galway it spreads over large tracts. The clay-slate is among the most important rocks, both for extent of area and valuable mineral deposits. The counties of Wexford, Louth, Waterford, Cork and Kerry, are mostly formed of it. In the north it is contained in the district bounded by a line from Longford to Drogheda, eastward, and to Donaghadee, north-eastward. At Kingscourt, Carrickmacross, and Cavan, the clay-slate dips and forms a basin, in which the limestone and coal formations are deposited. Slate is quarried extensively at Killaloe and Westport, in Clare, and in Wicklow. The old red sand-stone is chiefly developed in the south; it forms the greater part of Cork and Waterford counties, and of the inland mountain ranges of Knockmeledoun, Commeragh and the Galtees. It shows itself also in several places in Westmeath, Longford and Leitrim. A large tract of old red and yellow sand-stone forms the sea-coast at Killaloe, skirts by Loughs Conn and Cullen, and reaches the Atlantic at Westport. An extensive tract in Fermanagh and Tyrone from Lough Erne to Cookstown, has this rock for its basis. It is found in patches in Antrim, Derry and Tyrone. Crystalized gypsum occurs in Derry and Antrim, and selenite at Benburb. Uncrystalized gypsum is raised in large quantities at Carrickmacross. The yellow sand-stone usually accompanies the red, and rests

upon it. The basalt, or trap occupies a very limited area, being confined almost exclusively to the northeast portion of the island, forming the substratum of the county of Antrim and of some portions of Derry and Armagh.

Minerals.—The principal minerals are coal, iron, copper, lead, silver and gold. The coal fields are seven in number—one in Leinster, occupying large portions of Kilkenny and Queen counties, with a small part of Carlow; two in Munster; one in Tipperary, bordering on that of Kilkenny. The other spread over large portions of Clare, Limerick, Cork and Kerry counties, being the most extensive development of the coal strata in the British Empire. All these beds lie south of Dublin, and yield only stone coal, or authracite. The remaining fields, which lie to the north of Dublin, are formed of bituminous or flaming coal. Of the northern coal-fields three are in Ulster, one at Coal Island, near Dungannon; the second in the northern extremity of Antrim county, and the third in Monaghan. The Connaught coal-field extends over a space of sixteen miles in its greatest length and breadth in Roscommon, Sligo, Leitrim and Cavan counties. The total area is 140,000 acres, and with all this wealth undeveloped, we may ask how it comes that official returns prove that over one million tons of coal are annually imported from England into Ireland.

Turf or Peat.—Besides the stores of fuel, applicable to manufacturing and domestic uses, which lie embedded in the coal fields, Ireland enjoys two others, lignite and turf or peat. Lignite, an intermediate species of fuel, between wood and cool, is found in dense strata, encompassing the southern half of Lough Neagh. The total area of turf-bog is estimated at 2,830,000 acres, nearly one-seventh of the surface of the island. Of this quantity 1,576,000 are flat bog, spread over the central portions of the great limestone plain. The remaining 1,254,000 are mountain-bog, spread over the hilly districts near the coast.

Iron ore is found in all the localities of coal. Sir

Robert Kane, an eminent authority, in his valuable work on "The Industrial resources of Ireland," gives a table of the comparative contents in metalic iron of the native oars, and of the English, Scotch and Welch, wherein he demonstrates that the Leinster and Connaught ores are equal and even in average superior to those generally employed in Great Britain.

THE COPPER MINES are distributed throughout the clay-slate district in a great number of localities. The principal are the Ballymurtagh, Conoree, Cronebane, and Tigroney, and Ballyaghan mines, in Wicklow county; the Knockmahon, Kilduane, Bonmahon, and Ballinasisla, in the Waterford district, the mines of Allihies or Berehaven, Audley and Cosheen and Skull, in the South-western district, and the mines of Hollyford and Lackamore, in the Western district.

LEAD is more extensively diffused through Ireland than copper. The granitic district of Wicklow contains numerous veins; the principal are those of Glendalough, Glenmalur, Glendasane, or Luganure, and Ballycorus. The clay-slate districts also yield numerous indications of this metal.

GOLD.—Towards the close of the last century, native gold was found in the bed of the streams of Croghan, Kinshela mountain. It was discovered by the peasants, who collected quantities to the value of over fifty thousand dollars, in nuggets from twenty-two ounces to minute grains, before their proceedings were public. The district was taken in charge by Government agents, worked for about two years, and then finally abandoned.

NATIVE SILVER was found in a bed of iron ochre in Cronebane, but the deposit appears to have become exhausted. It has also been lately found associated with the lead ore at Ballycorus.

TIN STONE has been found in the auriferous soil of Wicklow. Other minerals, useful in the arts and manufactures, and found in quantities in various parts of the country are manganese, antimony, zinc, nickel, tin, iron pyrites, alum, clays of various kinds, building stone, marble, flags, and roofing slates. The localities of these,

too numerous to find space within the scope of this work, and the means of their profitable application towards the promotion of native industry, are fully developed in the valuable work of Sir Robert Kane, already quoted.

Climate.—The climate is temperate and moist; the crops are more frequently injured by excess of moisture than of aridity. Plants which require artificial heat in England, flourish here in the open air. This peculiarity of climate is not prejudicial to health; the average of life is much the same as in Great Britain; longevity equally common. The prevalent diseases are low fever and consumption. The mean temperature in the north is 48° Fahrenheit; in the middle, 50°; and in the south 52°. The quantity of rain which falls annually in Ireland, as deduced from observations by different authorities for a stated number of years, is as follows:

Locality.	Authority.	Av. of Years.	Quantity.
Dublin,	Apjohn,	6	30.89
Belfast,	Portlock,	6	34.96
Castlecomer,	Aher,	18	37.80
Cork,	Smith,	6	40.20
Cork,	Royal Inst.,	6	36.03
Derry,	Sampson,	7	31.12

Dublin is the driest and Cork the wettest of the localities in which observations have been made.

Botany.—Ireland once had the name of the Island of Woods, from being covered with forests, and latterly acquired the poetical name of the Emerald Isle, from the perennial brilliancy of its verdure. Its Flora contains some rare varieties; the arbutus unedo flourishes in Killarney; new varieties of saxifrage and of ferns have been discovered in the mountains of Kerry; Connemara, Belbullen mountains in Sligo, and Antrim county, abound in scarce Alpine plants; many rare and unknown species of algæ have been discovered on various parts of the coast.

Zoology.—The elk or moose deer, was a native of the country; its bones have been found in several places; wolves were once so numerous that a price was set upon them, and the Irish wolf-dog was kept for hunting them. Venomous animals are unknown. The surrounding seas

abound with fish, both round and flat; the sun-fish frequents the western coast; whales visit it occasionally; seals are common about the precipitous headlands; great varieties of shell-fish are taken along the shore.

Political Divisions.—The country is divided differently according to its political, judicial, fiscal and military arrangements. The ancient political divisions are obliterated, and it is now divided into the four provinces of Leinster, Ulster, Munster and Connaught. These are sub-divided into thirty-two counties, besides the eight small exempt jurisdictions of Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Kilkenny, Waterford, Galway, Carrickfergus and Drogheda, the first five of which are styled counties of cities, the remaining three, counties of towns. The counties are divided into three hundred and sixteen baronies, and again into two thousand four hundred and twenty-two parishes. The smallest political divisions are called townlands, and in some parts of the country ploughlands.

Government.—The executive Government is vested in a Lord Lieutenant, sometimes styled the Viceroy, as the direct representative of the British Monarch; he is assisted by a Privy-Council, appointed by the Crown and indefinite in number, the protestant bishop of Meath being always one *ex-officio*; and by a Chief Secretary, who must be member of the House of Commons. Each county is in charge of a Lieutenant, generally a peer, an indefinite number of Deputy Lieutenants and Magistrates, who act gratuitously; in addition, one or more Stipendiary Magistrates, all appointed by, and holding their commissions at the pleasure of the Crown. The counties of cities and towns, and the boroughs, are governed by their own Magistrates. The details of the execution of the laws are committed to the constabulary in the counties, and the police in Dublin.

The Constabulary Force an armed and well drilled body of light infantry; consists of an Inspector General, two Deputy Inspectors General, two Assistant Inspectors General, a Receiver, Surgeon, Veterinary Surgeon, eighteen Paymasters, thirty-five County Inspectors, two hundred and forty-seven Sub-Inspectors, three hundred

and thirty-two Head Constables, two thousand and ninety-five Constables, and nine thousand five hundred and three Sub-Constables; total, twelve thousand two hundred and twelve, with three hundred and forty-four horses.

The Dublin Metropolitan Police Force consists of two Commissioners, seven Superintendents, twenty-six Inspectors, forty-two Detectives, one hundred and forty-seven Sergeants, nine hundred and ten Constables; total, one thousand one hundred and thirty-six.

Representation.—The country is represented in the Imperial Parliament by 28 Temporal Peers, and 103 Commoners, of which latter class 69 represent the 32 counties; 2 Dublin University; 12 the cities and towns of Dublin, Cork, Limerick, Waterford, Belfast and Galway; and 20 the burroughs.

By an act passed in 1850, in addition to those persons previously qualified to register and vote in county elections, occupiers of any tenements rated in the last poor rate at a net annual value of twelve pounds and upwards, are entitled to vote in elections for counties also owners of certain estates of the rated annual value of five pounds; occupiers in Burroughs rated in the last poor rate at 8 pounds and upwards were entitled to vote subject to certain limitations; the act passed in 1868 to amend the representation of the people makes no alteration in the county franchise, but for cities, towns and burroughs, it reduces the eight pound occupation to a lodging of any amount more than four pounds, and introduces a new franchise by which any lodger who has occupied as sole tenant for the twelve months preceeding the 20th of July, in any year of a clear yearly value, if let unfurnished, of ten pounds or upwards.

The polling at contested elections is now for one day only, the number of electors on the register are 173,860; 53,590 for cities and boroughs, exclusive of 3,323 for Dublin University.

Judicial Divisions.—The judicial establishment consists of the Lord Chancellor, the Master of the Rolls, four Judges in each of the courts of Queen's Bench, Common Pleas, and Exchequer, those of the Exchequer,

being called Barons; an assistant Barrister for each county, a Bankrupt court with two Judges, two commissioners of the Insolvent's Court, the Judge of the Prerogative Court and of the Admiralty. The Superior Courts are all held in Dublin. Two of the Judges hold assizes for criminal and civil pleas in each county, in spring and summer every year, for which purpose the country is divided into six circuits. Two of the Judges also hold a general jail delivery for Dublin every six weeks. There are five hundred and sixty-seven Petty Sessions Courts in Ireland. There are thirty-four county prisons, ten city or town prisons, and one hundred and eleven bridewells.

Fiscal Divisions.—The country is divided for the collection of Revenues, according to different arrangements in the customs, excise, transfer and post office departments.

Military Divisions.—The staff of Ireland consists of the departments of Commander of the Forces, Adjutant-General, and Quartermaster-General; under which are those of the Judge advocate and Medical Director General. The military divisions are according to the following districts:

For General Service.—Belfast District—Headquarters, Belfast; Dublin, ditto, Dublin; Athlone, ditto, Athlone; Limerick, ditto, Limerick; Kilkenny, ditto, Kilkenny; Cork, ditto, Cork.

For Recruiting Service.—Northern Headquarters, Kerry; Centre, Dublin; Southern, Cork.

Militia.—The militia of Ireland, when embodied, consists of 12 regiments of artillery, 211 officers, 210 non-commissioned officers, 4,872 men; 21 regiments of infantry, 663 officers, 764 non-commissioned officers, 16,897 men, 14 rifle corps, 351 officers, 364 non-commissioned officers, 8,231 men; total, 30,000 men, with 1,225 officers.

Landed Property.

The following table gives the several territorial divisions, and acreable extent of each province and county of Ireland:

Provinces.	Counties and Counties of Cities and Towns.	No. of Baronies.	No. of Parishes.	Total Area.
	Townland Valuation Report.	TERRITORIAL DIVISIONS.		ACREABLE EXTENT.
LEINSTER.	1. Carlow	7	47	221,342
	2. Drogheda T.	—	*See No.* 10	472
	3. Dublin	10	99	226,414
	4. ——— City	—	—	——
	5. Kildare	14	116	418,436
	6. Kilkenny	11	140	509,732
	7. ——— City	—	—	——
	8. Kings	12	51	493,985
	9. Longford	6	26	269,409
	10. Louth	6	64	201,434
	11. Meath	18	146	579,899
	12. Queens	11	53	424,854
	13. Westmeath	12	63	453,468
	14. Wexford	9	144	576,588
	15. Wicklow	8	59	500,178
	Total	124	1,008	4,876,211
MUNSTER.	1. Clare	11	80	827,994
	2. Cork	23	251	1,846,333
	3. —— City	—	—	——
	4. Kerry	8	87	1,186,126
	5. Limerick	13	131	680,842
	6. —— City	—	—	——
	7. Tipperary	12	193	1,061,731
	8. Waterford	8	82	461,553
	9. —— City	—	—	——
	Total,	75	824	6,064,579
ULSTER.	1. Antrim	15	75	745,177
	2. Armagh	8	28	328,076
	3. Car. fergus T.	—	*See No.* 1	16,700
	4. Cavan	8	36	477,360
	5. Donegal	6	51	1,193,443
	6. Down	10	70	612,495
	7. Fermanagh	8	23	457,195
	8. Londonderry	6	43	518,595
	9. Monaghan	5	23	319,757
	10. Tyrone	4	42	806,640
	Total,	70	391	5,475,438

CONNAUGHT.	1. Galway	18	120	1,566,354
	2. —— Town	—	—	—
	3. Leitrim	5	17	392,363
	4. Mayo	9	73	1,363,882
	5. Roscommon	9	58	607,691
	6. Sligo	6	41	461,753
	Total,	47	309	4,392,043
Total Ireland,		316	2,532	20,808,271

Division of Surface.	Leinster.	Munster.	Ulster.	Connaught.	Ireland.	Proportion to 100.
Arable,	3,961,188	3,874,613	3,407,539	2,220,960	13,464,300	64.7
Uncultivated,	731,886	1,893,477	1,764,370	1,906,002	6,295,735	30.3
Plantations,	115,944	130,4'5	79,783	48,340	374,482	1.7
Towns,	15,569	14,693	8,790	3,877	42,929	0.3
Water,	51,624	151,381	214,956	212,864	630,825	3.
Total,	4,876,211	6,064,579	5,475,438	4,392,043	20,808,271	100.

The quantity of uncultivated land is stated in the report on the Occupation of Land in Ireland, on the authority of Mr. Griffith, to be 6,290,000 acres, of which the improvable and unimprovable portions are:

	Leinster.	Munster.	Ulster.	Connaught.	Total.
Improvable for Tillage,	186,000	390,000	419,000	430,000	1,425,000
" Pasture,	315,000	630,000	629,000	726,000	2,330,000
Unimprovable,	200,000	873,000	712,000	750,000	2,535,000
Total,	731,000	1,893,000	1,760,000	1,906,000	6,290,000

Mr. McCulloch, in the last edition of his valuable Commercial Dictionary, gives the following account of the extent of land in Ireland under the principal description of crops, the average rate of produce per acre, the total produce, the amount of seed, and the produce under deduction of seed, and the total value of such produce:

Crops.	Acres in Crop.	Produce per Acre. Qrs.	Total Produce. Qrs.
Wheat,	450,000	3	1,350,000
Barley,	400,000	3½	1,400,000
Oats,	2,500,000	5	12,500,000
Potatoes,	2,000,000	—	—
Fallow,	300,000	—	—
Flax,	100,000	—	—
Gardens,	15 000	—	—
Total,	5,765,000		15,250,000

Seed, 1-6th of Produce, Qrs.	Produce under deduction of seed. Qrs.	Total value.
225,000	1.125,000	£2,587,500
233,333	1,166,667	1,516,667
2,083,333	10.416.667	10,416,667
—	—	12,000,000
—	—	1,500,000
—	—	180.000
	12,708,334	£28,200,834

The average crops of the cultivated land, as calculated from those of the nine agricultural districts into which Wakefield classes Ireland, are as follows, per statute acre:

Wheat,	142 lbs.	seed	give	1,300 lbs.	or 9.15 lbs.	for 1.
Barley,	145	"	"	1,820 "	12.55	"
Oats,	196	"	"	1,734 "	8.85	"
Potatoes,	1,404	"	"	13,669 "	9.73	"

POPULATION—By report of Census Commissioners in 1841, 8,196,597—1851, 6,574,278; 1861, 5,798,967; 1871, 5,412,377. The total population on the night of the 2d of April, 1871, amounted to 5. 412,377; the sexes being 2,639,753 males, 2,772,624 females, or 386,590 less than that returned for the 7th of April 1861, being a decrease of 66.7 per cent. during the last ten years. These numbers include the men of the army and navy serving in Ireland on the night of the 2d of April, 1871, as well as the wives and families of such persons.

The following is the summary by provinces of the number of persons in the four last enumerations:

Provinces.	Population. 1841.	1851.	1861.	1871.
LEINSTER,	1,982,169	1,682,320	1,457.635	1,339,451
MUNSTER,	2,404,460	1,865,600	1,513,558	1,393,485
ULSTER,	2,389,263	2.013,879	1,914,236	1,833,228
CONNAUGHT,	1,420.705	1,012,479	913,135	846,213
Totals,	8,196.597	6,574,278	5,798,967	5,412,377

Provinces.	Decrease Persons.	1841 to 1851. Rate per ct.	Decrease Persons.	1851 to 1861. Rate per ct.	Decrease Persons.	1861 to 1871 Rate per ct.
LEINSTER,	299,849	15.13	224,685	13.36	118,184	8.11
MUNSTER,	538,860	22.41	352,042	18.87	120,073	7.93
ULSTER,	375,384	15.71	99,643	4.95	81.208	4.23
CONNAUGHT,	408,226	38,73	99,314	9.81	66.922	7.33
	1,622,319	19.79	775,714	11.79	386,590	6.67

Between 1841 and 1851 the population decreased about 1.5, 1,979 persons in every 100; from 1851 to 1861, 11.79; and from 1861 to 1871, 6.67 per cent.

BIRTHPLACES OF THE PEOPLE.—Distributed as to birthplace, the inhabitants of Ireland returned in the census report range into three classes, viz: natives in Ireland residing in other than their native counties; secondly, natives of Great Britain, and thirdly, persons born abroad. Dealing firstly with the movement of the Irish born population, it appears that of the total number of inhabitants in 1871, 500,798, or 94 per cent. natives of Ireland, resided elsewhere than in their native counties; 88,199 persons, native of Great Britain, including 67,881 natives of England and Wales, 2,318 natives of Scotland, were included in the population of Ireland upon the census night, and there were 17,010 persons comprising 8,367 natives of the colonies and India, 8,643 foreigners. While, lastly, 411 persons enumerated in Ireland in 1871, were returned as born at sea. A decline of seven per cent. in the number of children between the ages of one and five years, took place between the years 1861 and 1871, whereas between 1851 and 1861 an increase of nine per cent. had taken place. The number of centenarians returned on the census forms, in 1871 amounted to 724—259 males, 465 females. Of this number 89 were in the province of Leinster, 288 in Munster, 225 Ulster, 122 in Connaught.

DWELLINGS OF THE PEOPLE.—The census commissioners of 1841 divided the dwellings of the people into four classes. The fourth class comprised all mud cabins having only one room; the third class consisted of a better description built of mud, but varying from two to four rooms and windows; the second were good farm houses, or in town, houses having from five to nine rooms and windows; the first class included all houses of a better description. The following table shows the house accommodation in Ireland in 1841, 1851, 1861 and 1871:

NUMBER OF INHABITED HOUSES.

	1841.	1851.	1861.	1871.
First Class, . .	40,080	50,164	55,416	60,919
Second Class, . .	264,184	318,758	360,698	387,660
Third Class, . .	533,297	541,712	489,668	357,126
Fourth Class, . .	491,278	135,589	89,374	155,675
Total,	1,328,839	1,046,223	995,156	961,380

Taking the inhabited houses for the whole of Ireland there were 11.0 families in each house; in 1851 11.5 families; in 1861, 11.3, and in 1871, 11.1.

Families.—The total number of persons returned in 1871 as heads of families with their children, were 4,307,101, of whom 2,155,578 were males, 2,151,523 females; residing with these 816,365 visitors, 368,240 were males and 448,125 females; the servants numbered 288,911 persons, of whom 115,935 were males, 172,976 were females. The proportion per cent. of heads of families and their children to the population was in 1871, 82 males and 78 females. Combinedly 80 persons in every 100 were returned as heads of families with their children. The proportion in 1841 was 81; in 1851, 79, and in 1861, 82 per cent. The decrease in the number of families is most apparent in the counties of Waterford, Limerick, Tipperary, Kings and Kilkenny. It has been least in the province of Ulster, where it only amounts to 9,652 of 2.6 per cent.; and increase of the number of families has taken place in the towns of Belfast and Corrickfergus, the city of Dublin and the counties of Dublin, Antrim, Armagh and Sligo. The average number of persons to a family was 5.54 in the year 1841; in 1851, 5.44; in 1861, 5.14, and in 1871, 5.07. In the city of Dublin, within the municipal boundary, while the population has decreased 8,482 persons, the number of inhabited houses has increased by 1,027.

Condition as to Marriage.—Of the total population of 1871, of those 17 years of age and upwards, amounting to 3,272,052 persons, 1,348,418, or 41.2 in every 100, were unmarried; 1,564,339—47.8 per cent. married, and 359,295—11.0 per cent. widowed. Compared with the returns of 1851 and 1861, the portion of the unmarried was less in 1871 than at either of the two former periods. Of the Provinces, Leinster had the largest relative number—45.2 per cent. of bachelors and spinsters in 1871; Ulster was next in order, with 43.0 per cent.; Munster followed by 37.4 per cent., and Connaught with only 36.6 per cent. Leinster and

Munster had the largest proportion of widowers and widows, and Ulster and Connaught the least.

SANITARY CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE.—The following table shows the number of people sick at the date of taking the census, April 2, 1871: Sick at their own homes in civic districts, 5,556; in rural districts, 34,198; sick in Infirmaries, Hospitals, Lunatic Asylums, Jails, etc., 12,080; sick in Work-house and Work-house Hospital, 19,778. Total, 71,612; being a per centage of 1.3 to the population.

DEAF AND DUMB, IDIOTIC, BLIND AND LUNATIC.—The following is the ratio of the deaf and dumb, blind, lunatic, and idiotic:

	1851.	1861.	1871.
Deaf and dumb, one person in every	1,265	1,026	974
Blind, " " "	864	843	852
Insane, " " "	1,291	821	554
Idiotic, " " "	1,336	825	802

OCCUPATION.—The following table shows the occupations of the people in Ireland in 1871:

CLASS.	MALES.	FEMALES.	TOTAL.
First, professional,	115,115	37,745	152,860
Second, domestic,	34,517	705,678	717,495
Third, commercial,	88,464	17,155	105,619
Fourth, agriculture,	891,890	170,118	1,062.008
Fifth, industrial,	288,894	249,241	538,135
Sixth, indefinite and non-productive,	1,220.873	1,592,687	2,813,560
Totals,	2,639,753	2,272,624	5,412,377

The latter class now comprises a large number of persons of no stated occupation, and children and scholars under fifteen years of age, who in previous reports had been tabulated under class two.

EDUCATION.—The total number of persons 5 years old and upwards in 1841, who were unable to read and write, was 3766,066; of 53 per cent. in 1851, the proportion had fallen to 47 per cent., and in 1861 it was further reduced to 39 per cent., and in 1871 to 33 per cent. showing a decrease during the period of 1841 and 1871 of 20 per

cent.; those who could read only, were on the same proportion in 1861, as in 1851, 20 per cent., which was an increase of 1 per cent. only since 1841; in 1871 the percentage was 17.3; those who could write as well as read, advanced from 28 per cent. in 1841, to 33 in 1851, and to 41 in 1861, being an increase, between 1851 and 1861 of 8 per cent., and between 1841 and 1861 of 13 per cent. In 1871 the percentage was 49, being an increase between 1861 and 1871 of 8 per cent., and between 1841 and 1871 of as much as 21 per cent.

PROPRIETORS OF LAND IN IRELAND IN 1870.—The total number of proprietors—a parliamentary return—was 19,547, owning 20,046,182 acres. Of this number, 2,973 are absentee proprietors, owning 5,129,169 acres, the annual value of which, for taxing purposes, is $2,470,816. This return, it should be noted, is confined only to the owners of property in country or rural districts; the owners of all lands and buildings in cities, towns and townships, have not been acertained.

EMIGRATION FROM IRELAND.—In the decennial period ending with 1861, 1,227,710 Irish born persons emigrated from Ireland; and in the ten years from 1st April, 1861, to 31st March, 1871, 819,903 Irish born persons emigrated from different ports. To emigration may chiefly be attributed the decrease of population, during a period when the country was remarkably free from any outbreak of pestilence, scarcity of food, or of the other social calamities, which have occasionally retarded the growth of population in this and other countries. It must also be remembered that some of the remote effects of the disastrous period of famine, pestilence and panic, which commenced with the potato blight of 1845–46, had extended over the first few years of the decade of 1851. Assuming that the increase of population by births over deaths was at the rate of 92 per cent. per annum, as stated in former census reports emanating from this country, the population of Ireland would—had no disturbing cause intervened—have been about 6,297,275. It is therefore proba-

ble that the decrease of the population may be accounted for by the very great emigration as stated above.

PAUPERS.—It is here worthy of remark, that at the time of taking the census in 1851, there was no less than 250,-611 paupers in the Irish workhouses, and 47,019 persons in hospital, of whom 4,545 were not work-house inmates; —that in 1861, the numbers in work-houses, healthy and sick, were only 50,010, while there were but 48,989 persons in the Irish work-houses the day before the census was taken in 1871.

THE CASE OF IRELAND STATED.

ANTIQUITY OF ITS CIVILIZATION.

Much has been written and sung concerning the prehistoric days and men of Ireland. Tradition tells us of successive descents upon the Island by people from the East, each successive colony exterminating its predecessor. Though the Romans occupied England during several centuries they never crossed the channel to Ireland. Consequently Irish history lacks that confirmation or evidence which the Romans left concerning England and the other lands they conquered during the wide extension of their Empire. The first government of which any mention is made is that of a monarchy. The rulers were kings, and the bards, judges and other officials were taken from the Druid priests; of course the military chieftain was conspicious. Druidism was the religion of the Pagan days. What is known of these ages is but the story of a succession of wars, including military excursions on the continent for prey or for hire, or perhaps for both. It was on one of these military adventures into Gaul,that among the captured prisoners brought into Ireland,was a lad,who in after days became the Christian Apostle, whose name is so indelibly impressed upon the hearts of the Irish people,—the great Saint Patrick. The story runs that Patrick was a native of Gaul; that King Nial captured him with other prisoners, who were taken to Ireland and made slaves; that he was placed in charge over flocks. This was about A. D. 405; seven years later he was made free; after his return to Britany he entered the Christian priesthood, and in 432 he came

back to Ireland, preaching to his pagan captors the religion of the Savior. St. Patrick's life extended until the year 493, and thus he witnessed the conversion of the whole people, and the establishment of the Christian faith.

During the days of Patrick, the constitution or supreme law of Ireland was compiled. At that time the island was divided into four provinces, in each of which was a king; a fifth principality was held by a king, superior in rank and authority, and monarch of all Ireland. Each province had its numerous chieftains. These kings were elective, but always taken from the nobility. The crown of Ireland, from the time of the conversion by St. Patrick, was held by the family subsequently known as O'Neill, during the first five Christian centuries. Yet during all this time the monarch was chosen by an election of the inferior kings and princes. An annual assembly of the dignitaries of the kingdom was held during the time of the Druids, the chief priests holding high rank in the national council. The monarch presided, and besides the priests were the chiefs and military champions. Subsequently the Christian clergy took the places in these assemblies, formerly held by the Druids. The constitution recited the privileges and rights of the five kings, and also set forth with great particularity the prohibitions or restraints upon the prerogatives of royalty.

As early as 258 there was an emigration from Ireland to Scotland; others followed, and these migrations continued from time to time until in 503 the Irish had established a numerous settlement in Rosshire and Perth. The later colonists were Christians, and in 565 St. Columba, of the Royal family of O'Neill of Ireland, accompanied by other Christian priests, crossed over into Scotland, and there successfully Christianized the inhabitants, including the Irish colonists as well as the Picts, and others inhabiting Scotland.

In the year 797 occurred the first invasion of Ireland by the Danes. Preceding this time, however, Ireland had made great material progress. Though essentially a

military monarchy, and all bearing allegiance and fealty to the monarch, there was a vast difference between that fealty and the feudalism of subsequent times.

THE LAND WAS NOT THE PROPERTY OF THE KING;

nor was it the property of the chieftain or local subordinate Prince. It was the property of the clan, or the family, and was held for the common benefit of the clan. Those who worked or cultivated it, though not holding it by an exclusive or individual right or title, held it as members of a community, and could not be dispossessed nor be deprived of the fruits of their labor.

In the centuries from the conversion of the Irish, to the Danish invasion, Ireland had been blessed with many able, learned and wise men. Christianity had removed many of the barbarous practices of Druidism, and Christianity had softened the hearts of the people by the gentler doctrines of the Prince of Peace. The clergy, themselves an educated class, established and encouraged

THE ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOLS.

The teachers for these schools were the product of the monasteries of Ireland and of Scotland. So great was the celebrity attained through Europe by these schools that thousands of pupils were sent thither from all parts of the continent. It is claimed that during the period from the year 550 to 750, the schools of Ireland had attained great eminence. McGee writes, concerning the intellectual leadership in Western Europe: "From the middle of the sixth to the middle of the eighth century, it will hardly be disputed that the leadership devolved on Ireland. All the circumstances of the sixth century helped to confer it upon the newly converted western isle; the number of her schools, and the wisdom, energy and zeal of her masters, retained for her the proud distinction for two hundred years. And when it passed away from her grasp, she might still console herself with the grateful reflection that the power she had founded and exercised was divided among British and continental schools, which her own *alumni* had largely

contributed to form and establish." A long list of the principal schools in successful operation, and liberally endowed by private contribution, is of record in all the histories of that time. These large educational establishments were generally located on the banks of rivers, in order to be easy of access. They were free schools, giving in addition to instruction, free board and lodging and books to all from foreign lands. These scholastic establishments were extensive, and several of them were attended at times by one, two, and even as high as seven thousand students. Students and teachers formed the population of large villages. The buildings (of wood) were erected in long lines forming streets. The students, besides the Irish, spoke "the tongues of the Gaul, the Cimbri, the Pict, the Saxon, and Frank." The curriculum included "the languages of the country, and the language of the Roman church; the languages of scripture—Greek and Hebrew; the logic of Aristotle, the writings of the Fathers, the defective physics of the period; mathematics, music, and poetical composition." A writer says: "When we remember that all the books were manuscripts; that even paper had not yet been invented; that the best parchment was equal to so much beaten gold, and a perfect MS. was worth a King's ransom, we may better estimate the difficulties in the way of the scholar of the seventh century."

The glory, the peace and the high intellectual character of Ireland at this time was soon to be disturbed. From 794 to 824, the Island was subjected to

INVASIONS BY THE DANES.

These hardy mariners, the pirates of that age, would leave their homes in the early spring, land on the coasts of the islands and mainlands, live riotously during the summer, and in the fall carry back with them the spoils of the Summer. In 830, they sacked and burned the school buildings at Bangor (Belfast) then the largest established college in Ireland. They captured nearly all the cities, but not until 837 did they undertake a permanent lodgment in the country, remaining there during the winter.

"To the Vikings of Norway the fertile Island," writes an historian, "with which they were now so familiar, whose woods were bent with the autumnal load of acorns, mast and nuts, and filled with numerous herds of swine—their favorite food—whose pleasant meadows were well stored with beeves and oxen, whose winter was often as mild as their northern summer, and whose waters were as fruitful in fish as their own Lofoden friths; to these men this was a prize worth fighting for; and for it they fought long and desperately." The first invaders were from Norway, and these predatory visitations continued from 794 to 847. Then the expeditions were sometimes of Danes, again of Norwegians, and frequently of both, and their settlements became more and more permanent. For a period, the Scandinavian incursions were less frequent. The wars of Harold the "Fair haired" King of Norway, kept his fighting countrymen at home, but at the same time many of his vanquished Danish, Swedish and Norwegian enemies found refuge and permanent lodgment in Ireland. They recruited their colonies diligently. From this time out, whatever may have been the original home of the invaders, they were all styled Danes. After the death of the Irish King, Flan of the Shannon in 916, the active war with the Danes, then in possession of a large part of the Island, was renewed. In the 150 years that followed the first invasion by the Northmen, there had been many changes in their relations to the native Irish, while the peaceful character of the Irish, their pastoral habits and pursuits, and especially their cultivated and educated tastes and acquirements had given way and perished under the demoralizing presence of perpetual war with a pagan people. Speaking an unknown tongue, and having nothing in common with the native race, the Irish had become a more warlike people, and these wars developed many able military as well as civil rulers. During this time the resident Scandinavians could not fail to be impressed with the surroundings in the new land in which they had sought a home. They begun to mingle with the Christians, and christianized Scandinavians, especially those born in the Island, soon, by marriage,

established closer ties with the natives, and acquired the language of the Irish. Thus, in the year 980, the christianized Danes,—those born in Ireland accepting Ireland as their home and country, nevertheless, the general scheme of the conquest of Ireland by the Norsemen, and the establishment there of a Scandinavian dynasty, was never abandoned. The race had been everywhere successful. They had conquered in England and Wales. They held the Orkneys and all the northern isles. They had alliances with Scotland, which had become a dependent country.

From A. D. 1005 to A. D. 1010, were years of peace in Ireland, the great Brian having united in his own person the royal power of Ireland. A domestic dissension in 1010, led to a combination between the discontented Irish and the ambitious Earl of Orkney, and preparations were at once begun for an united effort to conquer Ireland. Four years were occupied, during which the whole Danish powers labored to so strengthen Seguin of Orkney that he might be placed on the throne of Ireland.

THE GREAT BATTLE WAS FOUGHT AT CLONTARF,

on Good Friday, A. D. 1014.] It began at dawn and ended at sunset. King Brian, whose name is immortal in Irish hearts and Irish annals, was murdered at his tent by a retreating body of Danes. The carnage was terrific. Though occasional visits were made at intervals, the "conquest of Ireland" by the Danes ended at Clontarf, 220 years after the first landing on the Island. With the death of the great Brian, at Clontarf, in the hour when Ireland had triumphed forever over the danger of Danish conquests, and was forever freed from the armed presence of the Northmen who had menaced her for over 200 years. Ireland realized the weakness to which these centuries of continued war had reduced her. For seven years after Brian's death, Malachy II reigned by general consent; what followed is thus forcibly summarized by McGee:

"For a hundred and fifty years after the death of Malachy II, the history of Ireland is mainly the history of these

five families, O'Neills, O'Melaghlins, McMurroughs, O'Briens and O'Connors, and for ages after the Normans enter on the scene the same provincialized spirit, the same family ambitions, feuds, hates and coalitions, with some exceptional passages, characterize the whole history; not that there will be found any want of heroism or piety, or self-sacrifice, or of any virtue or faculty, necessary to constitute a State, save and except the power of combination alone."

EXIT THE DANES. ENTER THE NORMANS.

Following Clontarf, Ireland was a prey to the rivalry of provincial chiefs. The claim to the monarchy was asserted by every claimant for the provincial thrones. The military spirit that had grown powerful enough to expel the Dane, had destroyed the national spirit, and the country was torn by perpetual and vindictive domestic strife. Education, religion, industry, the domestic virtues—all had felt the baleful effects of civil war. While this natural demoralization and disintegration was going on in Ireland, a momentous change was taking place in England. Fifty years after Brian was laid in his tomb, William of Normandy had invaded, conquered, and was crowned King of England. He brought with him to his new dominion, a new language, new laws, new institutions, new systems, and a new governing class. In 1066 he was proclaimed King of England, and his successors hold sovereign rule there to the present day. He took no notice of Ireland; his time was divided between his new and his ancestral dominions. While Ireland was weakening daily, her disunited sons were doing the work of the Normans for them. During the reigns of William, Henry I and Stephen, extending from 1066 to 1154, a period of 88 years, the Normans were too busily engaged at home to devote much time to Irish conquest, though it was always a part of their policy.

In 1154, the war of succession in England terminated in the

ACCESSION OF HENRY II,

the first of the Plantaganets. This prince was the most pol-

itic of his day. He had married the divorced wife of Louis VII, of France, and was rich by her possessions in Aquitaine. He at once turned his attention to Ireland. Simultaneous with his succession to the crown of England, Adrian IV was elected Pope. Adrian was an Englishman by birth. Henry and he sustained the most intimate relations. Complaints had been made to the Pope that the general decay in Ireland had extended to the church, and that a rigorous discipline was needed in the Island. Whatever may have been the inducement or the representations made, Pope Adrian granted to Henry a license to invade Ireland, that the people and the church of the latter might be reformed in their morals and otherwise. This permit, cession or whatever it might be called, was granted almost immediately after the simultaneous election of Adrian in Rome, and the succession of Henry in England. The authority, whatever may have been its purport or intent, was not acted on until a much later day, and the story of the direct inducement to the first Norman aggression was briefly stated as follows:

Dermid McMurrough, King of Leinster, corrupted the integrity of O'Ruark, one of his nobles, and was expelled the country. He fled to England; King Henry was absent, on his wife's estates in France. Dermid followed him to that place, and there asked aid of the English King in the recovery of his royalty, and offering, in return, his support of England's conquest. Henry gave him a royal letter authorizing all his subjects, so disposed, to enlist in the service of the Irish prince. With this letter Dermid returned to England, and began his recruiting in the city of Bristol, and in North Wales. The prince of North Wales was the nephew of the celebrated Vesta, the Helen of the Welsh. Her story is inseparable from that of the Norman Conquest of Ireland. She was in her day the most famous beauty in the land. As a girl she had won the admiration of King Henry. Two of her sons, Robert Fitzroy and Henry Fitz Henry, were recognized by their royal father. She subsequently was married by the King to Gerald, whose sons were Fitz-

geralds ; Stephen, her second husband, whose children were Fitzstephens ; several of her daughters married, whose children were the founders of other families whose names bore the prefix of Fitz.

Besides those mentioned, the Norman branches were the Fitzwilliams, of England and Wales, and the Geraldines, Graces, Fitzhenries and Fitzmaurices, of Ireland. These were all brave and gallant soldiers, adventurers, and ripe for any expedition offering profit or glory. These persons all enlisted under Dermid. At Bristol he met the Earl of Pembroke, or Richard de Clare. From the strength of his arms he was popularly called Strong-bow. He was a widower. Dermid and he made terms—the town of Waterford and cantreds of land adjoining was to be given to the English adventurers ; large grants of land were guaranteed to all men of the rank of knights, and Strong-bow was to be rewarded with the hand of the daughter of the King of Leinster, with the right of succession to the throne. With this force of adventurers, and with such archers and men-at-arms as they could muster, Dermid landed in Ireland late in 1167. In the following May, Fitzstephens and others arrived with additional forces.

THUS WAS BEGUN THE CONQUEST OF IRELAND,

Over seven hundred years ago, and during those seven hundred years the Irish have unavailingly protested against the subjugation, the confiscation, the cruelty and relentless severity with which they have been pursued by their conquerors.

It is not the purpose of this sketch to deal with the details of the Norman-Irish struggle. Henry II visited Ireland in person in 1171, and "accepted" the submission and homage of the nobles and people. But there had been no serious pretense that England had established, or Ireland had accepted, a supremacy. In the meantime, the conquest went on, in one form or another. The Normans, who had settled in Ireland, found it difficult to enforce their feudal claims, so, successively, they took their place as part of the Irish people, married and inter-

married, and became as Irish in all things as the native Irish. Henry II died in 1189. During the long reign of his successors, down to the death of Henry VII, in 1509, a period of 320 years, the work of conquest went on, slowly, but progressively. In 1509 Henry VIII became King of England, with Wolsey as his minister. The policy of the minister was to attract the support of the native chieftains and families as opposed to the Anglo-Irish. The purely English occupation of Ireland was reduced to small proportions. Nevertheless, at the time of the death of Wolsey, the condition of Ireland was such that a feeling in favor of a recognition of Henry as King of Ireland, had become general with all classes, and so, when in June, 1541, a parliament was summoned, it was largely attended. It embraced representatives of every class and of every faction in Ireland. Within three days bills were passed declaring that Henry VIII and his heirs should be king in Ireland; and in June 19, 1541, the royalty of Ireland was transferred to the English royal family. This act was confirmed by the English parliament in 1542, and the union of the two nations was complete. There were many Irish, however, who took no part in this action, and separate treaties were made with many of those families, but still a few refused to the last.

One of the first acts of Henry, following this election of himself as king, and the incorporation of Ireland as an appendage to the crown of England, was to distribute honors. The Irish chieftains were called to London, and in July, 1543, a part of them were created English earls. The honors were not empty ones. Among them he distributed grants of the lands, abbeys, and monasteries previously taken from the church, their own English law and English institutions were henceforth to become the law and institutions of Ireland. The creation of the new peers and the issue of new patents superseding all other titles to the land, involved a legal annihilation of the ancient land law of Ireland, and the substitution therefor of the feudal system of land tenure, which to-day afflicts the Irish people.

We know what the present law is, but what the tenure under which land was held in Ireland down to the date of Henry's sweeping assumption of sovereignty, is thus correctly stated by McGee, in his history of Ireland. (Vol. 1, p. 363.)

By the Breton law every member of a free claim was as truly a proprietor of the tribe land as the chief himself. He could sell his share, or the interest in it, to any other member of the tribe—the origin, perhaps, of what is now called tenant right; he could not, however, sell to a stranger without the consent of the tribe and the chief.

The stranger coming in under such an arrangement, held by a special tenure, yet if he remained during the life-time of three lords he became duly naturalized. If the unnaturalized tenant withdrew of his own will from the land, he was obliged to leave all his improvements behind; but if he was ejected he was entitled to get their full value.

Those who were immediate tenants of the chief, or of the Church, were debarred this privilege of tenant right, and if unable to keep their holdings were obliged to surrender them unreservedly to the Church or the chief.

All the tribesmen, according to the extent of their possessions, were bound to maintain the chief's household, and to sustain him, with men and means, in his offensive and defensive wars.

Such were, in brief, the land laws in force over three-fourths of the country (all outside that actually held by the English) in the sixteenth century; laws which partook largely of the spirit of an ancient patriarchal justice, but which, in ages of movement, exchange and enterprise, would have been found the reverse of favorable to individual freedom and national strength. There were not wanting, we may be assured, many minds to whom this truth was apparent, as early as the age of Henry VIIIth; and it may not be unreasonable to suppose that one of the advantages which the chief found in exchanging his patriarchal position for a feudal Earldom would be the greater degree of independence of the will of the tribe, which the new system conferred on him. With the

mass of the clansmen, however, for the very same reason the change was certain to be unpopular if not odious.

That this was substantially the system of land tenure in Ireland at the date when Henry the VIIIth assumed feudal proprietorship can hardly be doubted. It was not only the law at that time, but the underlying principles of that law had been in force and recognized in Ireland from the earliest date. These principles were that the land belonged to the people collectively, or to members of the tribes collectively; and that by allotment, or other mode of decision, each cultivator had a certain share of this land, which he held in severalty as against all others, and over this he had a proprietary interest, which he could sell, or hire out, or which he might dispose of by gift, or distribution among his family or otherwise, all of which were of course subject to conditions varying through several centuries and modified by the influences of time, and the circumstances of the country.

Sir Henry Sumner Maine, the eminent English writer, in his work on "Early History of Institutions," devotes a large part of his work to an examination of the recently published translation of

ANCIENT LAWS OF IRELAND,

the collection known as the Brehon laws. He has examined them closely and critically, and has no hesitation in declaring that they establish the existence of a personal proprietorship of the lands by those who occupied and cultivated them, and that this ownership included the legal right of alienation. A few extracts from this English writer will confirm the statement already given as to the law of land tenure in Ireland from the earliest times down to the date when the laws of the country were swept, like the land, by the Anglo-Norman conquerors, and the present feudal proprietorship, together with the Anglo-Norman feudal lords, were established in Ireland.

"Let me now state the impression which, partly from the examination of the translated texts, legal and non legal, and partly by the aid of Dr. Sullivan's introduction, I have formed of the agrarian organization of an

Irish tribe. It has been long settled, in all probability, upon the tribal territory. It is of sufficient size and importance to constitute a political unit, and possibly at its apex is one of the numerous chieftains whom the Irish records call kings. The primary assumption is that the whole of the tribal territory belongs to the whole of the tribe, but in fact large portions of it have been permanently appropriated to minor bodies of tribesmen; a part is allotted in a special way to the chief as appurtenant to his office, and descends from chief to chief, according to a special rule of succession. Other portions are occupied by fragments of the tribe, some of which are under minor chiefs or 'flaiths', while others, though not strictly ruled by a chief, have somebody of a noble class to act as their representative.

"All the unappropriated tribe-lands are in a more especial way the property of the tribe as a whole, and no portion can theoretically be subjected to more than a temporary occupation. Such occupations are, however, frequent, and among the holders of the tribe-land, on these terms, are groups of men calling themselves tribesmen, but being in reality associations formed by contract, chiefly for the purpose of pasturing cattle. Much of the common tribe-land is not occupied at all, but constitutes, to use the English expression, the 'waste' of the tribe. Still this waste is constantly brought under tillage, or permanent pasture by settlements of tribesmen, and upon it cultivators of servile status are permitted to squat, particularly towards the border. It is the part of the territory over which the authority of the chief tends to steadily increase, and here it is that he settles his 'fuid-hir,' or stranger-tenants, a very important class—the outlaws and 'broken' were from other tribes who come to him for protection, and who are only connected with their new tribe by their dependence on its chief, and through the responsibility which he incurs for them." pp. 92-93.

ANCIENT IRISH TENANTRY.

Sir Henry Maine, having thus pictured the composition of the Irish tribe, and pointed out its constituents,

draws from the Brehon laws the relations of those tribal classes holding inferior position towards the other members of the tribe. In the extract just quoted, he mentions the stranger-tenants; at page 175, he thus further describes them.

"Now the Fuidhir tenant was exclusively a dependent of the chief, and was through him alone connected with the tribe. The responsibility for crime, which in the natural state of Irish society attached to the family or tribe, attached in the case of the Fuidhir, to the chief, who in fact became to this class of tenants that which their original tribesmen or kindred had been. Moreover the land which they cultivated in their place of refuge was not theirs but his. They were the first 'tenants at will' known in Ireland, and there is no doubt that they were always theoretically rackrentable. The 'three rents,' says the Senchcesmer, are the 'rackrent from a person of a strange tribe, a fair rent from one of the tribe, and the stipulated rent which is paid equally by the tribe and the strange tribe.' 'The person from a strange tribe' is undoubtedly the Fuidhir, and though the Irish expression translated 'rackrent' cannot, of course, in the ancient state of relation between population and land, denote an extreme competitive rent; it certainly indicates an extreme rent; since in one of the glosses it is graphically compared to the milk of a cow which is compelled to give milk every month to the end of the year; at the same time there is no reason to suppose that, in the first instance, the Fuidhir tenants were oppressively treated by the chiefs. The chief had a strong interest in encouraging them; 'he brings in Fuidhirs,' says one of the tracts,' 'to increase his wealth.'"

In another paragraph Sir Edward Maine further defines the status of the class of persons who alone were the "tenants at will" in Ireland under the Irish law. He says, page 172-3:

"There is evidence in the tracts, (Brehon) and especially in the unpublished (now published) tract called the 'Corus Fine' that the servile defendants, like the freemen of the territory, had a family or tribal organiza-

tion; and indeed all fragments of a society like that of ancient Ireland take more or less the shape of the prevailing model. The position of the classes indicated in Doomsday and other ancient English records as Cotarii and Bordarii was probably very similar to that of Sencleithes and Bothacks; and in both cases it has been suspected that these servile orders had an origin distinct from that of the dominant race, and belonged to the older or aboriginal inhabitants of the country. Families or sub-tribes formed out of them were probably hewers of wood and drawers of water to the ruling tribe or its subdivisions. Others were certainly in a condition of special servitude to the chief or dependence on him; and these last were either engaged in cultivating his immediate domain-land and herding his cattle, or were planted by him in separate settlements on the waste lands of the tribe. The rent or service which they paid to him for the use of this land was apparently determinable solely by the pleasure of the chief."

It was these fugitives or expelled members of tribes, who were taken under the protection of the several chiefs, who proved a distinct and servile class, who were never admitted to membership among the freemen of the race who were the tenants at will in ante-Anglo-Norman days. The freemen were all land occupants, holding the land they cultivated as proprietors, with the right to sell or give it away. This was the land tenure of Ireland which was swept away by the wholesale confiscations of all the land in Ireland by the conquering nation, and by the establishment in Ireland of the feudal system, vesting the land in the few, and reducing the many to the condition of tenants. The ancient laws of Ireland and the proprietorship of the land by the people perished with the election of Henry VIII as king of Ireland in 1542.

THE ENGLISH OF THE PALE.

Hitherto the English dominions in that country, embraced only a small strip on the eastern coast, called the "Pale," and those whose proprietary rights were ac-

knowledged by the English Viceroy, were hated by the Irish, to whom they were known as the "English of the Pale." Their title to possession was disputed; they were regarded as enemies, and in many a raid and foray, their cattle, arms and household goods were seized on, and carried off as "spoils of war." It would seem, indeed, as if the Irish regarded the English as intruders, and as such, should be punished in any way which presented itself. Accordingly, we find the English Viceroy reporting that the Pale was "harried" by O'Bryrne, of Wicklow, the O'Toole, the O'More and other chieftains whose location gave them the opportunity, and whose hatred of the English spurred them to action.

THE REFORMATION IN IRELAND.

Such was the footing of the English in Ireland at the commencement of Henry's reign. When he determined on the politico-religious change called the Reformation, he found as ready assent to the change among the Anglo-Irish colonists as among the most servile of the English clergy, nobility and people. They conformed, they wished to share in the spoils with an eagerness peculiarly English. Conscience or religious conviction they had none. The native princes and the Norman-Irish nobles in most instances, and the people of Ireland to a man refused to believe in the Spiritual Supremacy of Henry, or to abandon their faith. Those of the Irish chieftains who were base enough to conform were repudiated by their clansmen; and other chieftains, though from the same family, set up in their places. Some indeed conformed only in seeming, and practiced the old faith in their own castles.

The Irish to be sure had no very powerful reasons to be enamored of the political authority of the Pope's. It had heretofore been always on the side of the English. Papal bulls, and rescripts, and letters were always forthcoming to be used by the English in repressing the turbulent, refractory and English-hating Irish. With a discrimination which reflected great credit on them, then, as in O'Connell's time, and since, the Irish while admit-

ting the supremacy of the Pope in matters religious, utterly refused to accept their political doctrines, or abide by their political teachings. In fact the Irish were always more *Catholic* than "*Papist*."

Though so much occupied between his wives, mistresses, the plundering of monasteries and convents, and the intrigues of his Court, Henry found time to deal with Irish affairs, and in 1541 through his agent, Saint Leger, called a

MEETING OF THE IRISH PARLIAMENT.

This body met on the 12th of June, of that year. Many of the Irish princes attended, as did nearly all of the Anglo-Norman lords. O'Donnell and O'Neill, the Ulster princes, refused to attend at first, but were soon induced to do so through the flattery and favor of Henry. In the first session of this body the crown of Ireland was voted to Henry. To reward the chiefs, the king soon after conferred on them English titles; O'Donnell became Earl of Tyrconnell; O'Neill, Earl of Tyrone; O'Brien, Earl of Thomond; McWilliam, Earl of Clanrickarde. The titles were bestowed by Henry in person at Greenwich, whither the chieftains had repaired.

THE CLANS WOULD HAVE NO ENGLISH EARLS FOR CHIEFS.

But during their absence the clansmen, from whom they derived their representative characters, were not idle. No sooner had they discovered the treachery of the chiefs in bestowing the crown of Ireland on Henry and in repudiating Irish titles, than they began to take the most effective means of punishing them by deposing them and electing successors, and thus we find mentioned in the history of this and succeeding periods, an Irish O'Brien, and a King's or Queen's O'Brien; an Irish O'Neill and a King's or Queen's O'Neill. Those who were not faithful to the clansmen were denounced as persons "who sold their country, clan and church for gold." The deposed chief tried in many instances to assert his claims, and was backed up by some of his personal adherents, and thus was added another element of strife. No doubt this was very pleasing to the

English. Their policy thereafter was one of "divide and conquer;" one too, which was much more successful than any which they had yet adopted. In some instances the Irish chiefs recanted, and were restored to their former authority; but alas! the poison of dissension only worked too well.

The accession of Mary to the throne little affected the policy of England towards Ireland. Mary, no doubt, evinced much sympathy for Irishmen who were imprisoned during the reign of her father and brother, because of adhering to the ancient faith; but the Saxon hate of Celtic independence was as strong in Mary as it is in the English Catholics of the present day, and she was as determined in pushing the conquest of Ireland as was Henry VIII.

Elizabeth was still more vigorous and far more unscrupulous in carrying out the same policy. But the Irish chiefs were more determined to resist. Shane O'Neill (John the Proud) was up in Ulster. His father had taken an English title; the clansmen thereon elected John, who had no sooner taken on himself the leadership than he set about ridding Ulster of the English, and in this he was completely successful. He defeated all the armies that Elizabeth could send against him, and soon there was not a vestige of English rule in his province. He even ravaged and "harried" the Pale, defeating the English Commander-in-Chief, who was sent against him. Sussex, the Lord-Lieutenant, with the approval of Elizabeth, tried to procure his death by assassination, but failed. Unfortunately, Shane quarrelled with the O'Donnells, and was by them defeated in a pitched battle. Fleeing from the field, he fell into the hands of some Scotchmen, by whom he was treacherously murdered. The O'Neill's country fell into the hands of the English. Young Hugh O'Neill was taken to London, that he might be educated in English ways, and arts, and diplomacy. It was thought, no doubt, that he would become a thorough West-Briton; and would in turn educate his clansmen to learn and love the English ways, and the English religion. Young Hugh seems

to have acted his part very well; was a great favorite at the English court; fought in the Queen's army, even against the Irish chiefs; and generally approved himself a most loyal young man, in whom her Majesty had the fullest confidence. On his return to Ireland, he seems to have behaved as an ordinary English nobleman, and his loyalty was not questioned. The courtiers of Dublin, however, soon began to suspect his loyalty. It was reported that he busied himself in healing up the feuds between the Ulster chiefs; that he treated the Spaniards who escaped from the wreck of the Armada, with distinguished consideration; he was even charged with entertaining "popish" priests and assisting at popish services: add to this the fact that he was carefully drilling his men. Hear John Mitchel, with what savage satisfaction he tells of these proceedings: "It is much feared that he changes the men so soon as they thoroughly learn the use of arms, replacing them by others, all his own clansmen, whom he diligently drills and reviews for some unknown service. And the lead he imports; lead enough to sheet Glenshane, or clothe the sides of Caernocher. And, indeed, rumor does reach the deputy in Dublin that there goes on at Dangannon, an incredible casting of *bullets*.

THE RISING IN THE NORTH.

"If the two potent chiefs of the north should forget their ancient feud and unite for the cause of Ireland, then, indeed, not only this settlement of the Ulster 'counties' must be adjourned—one knows not how long—but the Pale itself or the Castle of Dublin might hardly protect Her Majesty's officers." The two 'potent princes' of Ulster did finally unite, although Elizabeth's deputy tried hard to prevent the union. Young Hugh Roe O'Donnell was abducted and confined in Dublin castle, but managed to escape, though not till a first attempt had failed. On his way homeward to Donegal he was treated with the greatest hospitality by O'Neill, and at Dungannon, doubtless, were the plans formed which gave so much trouble to Elizabeth. O'Neill was very cool and diplomatic, but young O'Donnell was impetu-

ous and impatient. Some English troops were stationed in a Donegal monastery; this was more than O'Donnell flesh and blood could bear; they were driven out by Red Hugh. Some regiments of Saxon soldiery occupied the garrisons of Sligo and Mayo; O'Donnell swooped down on them and soon five counties in Ulster and Connaught were relieved of the presence of the hateful Sassenach. This impetuosity on the part of the chief of Tyrconnell precipited matters. O'Neill had to declare himself before he was quite ready. He expected "*wine*" from the royal "Pope," and "*Spanish ale*" that would give him hope—"health and strength and hope," as Mangan has it; but "it was clear that, let King Philip send his promised aid, or send it not, open and vigorous resistance must be made to the further progress of a foreign power." O'Neill was summoned to Dublin to answer to charges against his loyalty. Nothing daunted he appeared, but on being informed of a plot to seize him he beat a hasty retreat. The time for action had arrived at last. All pretense of loyalty was thrown off; a powerful confederacy had been formed among the northern chiefs. "Dungannon," says Mitchell, "with stern joy beheld unfurled the royal standard of O'Neill, displaying, as it floated proudly on the breeze that terrible *Red Right Hand* upon its snowy white folds, waving defiance to the Saxon queen." O'Neill "stormed Portmore and drove away its garrison," razed its fortifications, then advanced into O'Reilly's country (Cavan) driving the Saxon garrisons before him, united with Maguire and MacMahon and laid siege to Monaghan.

Meanwhile O'Donnell had made a raid into Connaught, shutting up the English Garrison within the walled towns, ravaged the lands of the Saxon settlers, and sending the spoils to Tyrconnell. O'Farrel who was a loyal subject occupying what is now the county Longford, was next attacked, and treated to a little of O'Donnell's vengeance. The English were wholly unprepared for this kind of work, and not being so well prepared as they would wish, began to treat with the Ulster princes. O'Neill saw through the device. It was to gain time, and demanded

concessions which he knew full well could not be granted. One of the claims must have struck Bagenal, the English general, as a piece of most consummate impudence. Bagenal's sister had eloped with O'Neill, and now that doughty chieftain demanded as one of the conditions of peace, a thousand pounds of silver "*as a marriage portion with the lady whom he had raised to the dignity of an O'Neill's bride.*" The English would grant much on condition that the Northern princes should repent them of their rebellion. "The rebels" says Moryson, "grew insolent." They had no idea of begging pardon for doing what they conceived was a patriotic and pious duty.

Early in June, 1595, Bagenal and Norreys, at the head of the English army, marched from Dundalk to relieve Monaghan, which had fallen into the hands of the English, and which was now being besieged by O'Neill. The two armies met at Clontibret, and after a most determined and obstinate battle, "the banner of St. George went down before the furious charge" of O'Neill. "The English," says Mitchell, "fled headlong over the stream, leaving the field covered with their dead." . . "Norreys hastily retreated southwards, and Monaghan was yielded to the Irish." Segrave, the bravest of the English officers, was slain in single combat with O'Neill, and a large amount of fire-arms and munitions of war fell into the hands of the Irish. At the close of 1595 O'Neill's Confederacy ruled supreme over Connaught and Ulster. During the next two years the English were still further pressed, a portion of the Pale fell into the hands of the Irish; Essex was stripped of his plumes at Tyrell's Pass. —called for that reason the "Pass of Plumes,"—and was recalled to England in disgrace. In 1598 the English fitted out a formidable army to beard the lion of Ulster in his den, and marched to the relief of Armagh. The command of this fine army was entrusted to Bagenal, the mortal enemy of O'Neill.

"His veteran troops in the foreign wars tried,
Their features how bronzed, and how haughty their pride.
Stepped steadily on."

O'Neill having called O'Donnell and the principal

northern chiefs to his aid, advanced to meet them at *Beal-an-atha-buie*, now called the Blackwater, "the glory of Ulster," Thomas Davis called it. Mitchel describes the battle thus: "Bagenal, at the head of his first division, aided by a body of cavalry, charged the Irish light armed troops up to the very entrenchments, in front of which O'Neill's foresight had prepared some pits, covered over with *wattles* and grass, and many of the English cavalry, rushing impetuously forward, rolled headlong, both men and horses, into these trenches and perished. Still the Marshal's chosen troops, with loud cheers and shouts of 'St. George for Merry England' resolutely attacked the entrenchments, battered them with cannon, and in one place succeeded, though with heavy loss, in forcing back their defenders. Then the first main body of O'Neill's troops was brought into action, and with bagpipes sounding a charge, they fell on the English, shouting their fierce battle-cries, *Lamh-dearg*, and O'Donnell, Aboo! O'Neill, himself at the head of a body of horse, pricked forward to seek out Bagenal, but they never met; the Marshal was shot through the brain by some unknown marksman;" "his blood manured the reeking sod." The division he led was utterly routed, and with it the entire army.

"Land of Owen Aboo! and the Irish rushed on,
The foe fired but one volley—their gunners are gone.
Before the bare bosoms the steel-coats have fled,
Or, despite casque or corslet, lie dying or dead."

Thirty-four standards, all the English artillery, and twelve thousand pieces of gold were taken by O'Neill's army. Nearly three thousand English soldiers were left dead on the field, and the pride of England was humbled. Moryson, the English chronicler, says the "general voyce was of Tyrone after the defeat of Blackwater, as of Hannibal among the Romans after the defeat of Cannæ." It is needless to say what the opinion of Ireland was.

"Glory fadeth, but this triumph was no barren mundane glory;
Rays of healing it shall scatter on the eyes that read our story.
* * * * * * * * *
Whenso'er Erin triumphs, its dawn it shall renew,
Then O'Neill shall be remembered and O'Donnell's chief Red Hugh."

The thrill of victory wakened the Munster chiefs to their duty. This province was ruled by Anglo-Norman lords or Irish chiefs, who were powerless or unwilling to protest against English dominion. O 'Neill despatched Richard Tyrell and Owen O'Moore to rouse the southern chiefs. They were received with glad welcome. The English adventurers, who occupied the lands of the province after the collapse of the Geraldine confederacy fled for their lives, the principal fortresses, except Cork and Killmallock, fell into the hands of the Irish, and Munster was soon as free as Ulster and Connaught. "No English force was able to keep the field throughout all Ireland." In 1599 O 'Niell was recognized as chief ruler, and all his commands loyally obeyed. But Elizabeth was not the monarch to quit her deadly grip upon Ireland. England now put forth all her full strength to crush the Irish nation. Essex was dispatched with an army of twenty thousand men to put down the "rebellion," but never came to battle in the open field with O'Neill. His army was decimated in guerilla warfare, and he was recalled and disgraced. Mountjoy was now appointed deputy, and Carew lord president of Munster, and instead of meeting O'Neill with the weapon of the soldier, "they tried snares, deceit, treachery, gold, flattery, promises, temptation, and seduction in every shape." God pity Ireland; she has nursed of all her foes—the fiercest, worst. The methods of Mountjoy and Carew succeeded. O'Connor in the South, and Art O Neill and Niall Garv O'Donnell in the north, defected to the English. Dissensions arose in all portions. A Queen's McCarthy was set up against the Irish McCarthy in Muskerry; the O'Sullivan Beare had to contend against O'Sullivan Moore, in Kerry.

The Spanish expedition sent out under the command of the vain, pompous and cowardly Don Juan D'Aquilla, instead of landing in Ulster where it could meet little resistance, and where it would be most useful, landed at Kinsale in the south, where the only chiefs who remained faithful to the Irish cause were O'Sullivan Beare, O'Connor Kerry and O'Driscoll. D'Aquilla in a letter to O'Neill

threatened to treat with Carew unless further aid was given to his expedition.

The Ulster Chief, much against his will, marched south with O'Donnell, and uniting with O'Sullivan and O'Driscoll, laid siege to Kinsale, which he proposed to reduce by starvation. D'Aquilla became impatient, and demanded an assault on the English lines. O'Neill had to yield much against his will, and the Irish forces were defeated at the disastrous battle of Kinsale. The power of the confederacy was broken in the South. O'Sullivan, for a while defended his Castle at Dunboy, but finally retreated under the face of the most discouraging obstacles northward; his castle was blown up by the warder, Geoghegan, rather than it should fall into the hands of the English, "and the halls where mirth and minstrelsy than Beara's winds were louder" was reduced to a ruin. Fraud had done its work where force had failed. O'Neill and O'Donnell continued to fight bravely against all odds. The Tudors, wile succeeded, as the Stuarts and the Brunswickers have since. The Queen's O'Riellys, O'Neills, O'Sullivans and O'Donnells, have had their imitators in our own days in the Keoghs, Monsells and Sadliers, of the "Pope's Brass band," the Corydons, the Masseys and the Nagles of Fenian times; and the Deases, Dygbys, Morrises, Murphys and McCarthys, of the Home Rule movement. The submission of the chiefs and subsequent events, are told on another page.

ENGLISH DOMINION CONFINED TO THE PALE FOR FOUR HUNDRED YEARS.

Notwithstanding the pretended conquest of Ireland by the Anglo-Normans in the reign of Henry II, the fact is indisputable that the English dominion was virtually confined to the limits of "The Pale" for four hundred years thereafter. This district comprised the counties of Dublin, Kildare, Meath and Uriel, with the cities of Waterford, Cork and Limerick, and the lands immediately surrounding them. Over the other parts of the island, which were without the Pale, neither Henry nor any of his successors, until the reign of James I, after the

submission of the northern chieftains, as previously related, either had or even claimed to have any sovereignty beyond the formal homage of some of the native chieftains, an empty title and an inconsiderable, irregularly paid tribute. Henry made the most lavish promises of protection, and even aggrandizement to those chieftains who had basely betrayed their country by joining McMurrough in inviting the "proud invader" into Ireland. "In lieu," says Plowden, "of his promises of future power to the chieftains, he dispossessed them of their honors and territories, and granted them with the arbitrary prodigality of a conquering despot to his Norman adventurers, whom he raised at the same time to the rank of feudatory princes."

POLICY OF THE ENGLISH GOVERNMENT FOUNDED IN HATRED TO THE IRISH.

It has ever been the policy of the English Government, instead of endeavoring to win the fealty and affection of the Irish by equal and just laws, to foment divisions and perpetual dissensions, animosity and hatred between the two peoples.

This is as true during the four hundred years that England remained Catholic as it continued to be after the Reformation, when religious persecution gave added venom to national hatred. "Hence it is," says Sir John Davies, "that in all the parliament rolls which are extant from the 40th year of Edward III, when the statutes of Kilkenny were enacted, to the reign of King Henry VIII; we find the degenerate and disobedient English called *rebels;* but the *Irish* who were not in the king's peace, are called *enemies.* All the statutes passed by the parliament of the Pale, speak of English rebels and Irish enemies, as if the Irish had never been in the condition of subjects, but always out of the protection of the laws, and were indeed in a worse case than aliens of any foreign realm that was in enmity with the crown of England. For by divers heavy penal laws the English were forbidden to marry, to foster, to make gossipes with the Irish; or to have any trade or commerce in their markets and

fairs. Nay, there was a law made no longer since than the 28th of Henry VIII, that the English should not marry with any person of Irish blood, though he had gotten a charter of denization, unless he had done both homage and fealty to the King in the Chancery, and were also bounden by recognizance in sureties to continue a loyal subject. Whereby it is manifest that such as had the government of Ireland under the crown of England did intend to make a perpetual separation of enmity between the English and the Irish."

The reflections of Sir John Davies, himself an Englishman, a trusted servant of the crown, and a lawyer well versed in the laws and constitution of England, may well be considered of more weight in depicting the venal and cruel policy of the English government in Ireland than the testimony of any modern writer. "This, then, I note," continues Sir John Davies, "as a great defect in the civil policy of this kingdom, in that, for the space of 350 years, at least, after the conquest first attempted, the English lawes were not communicated to the Irish, nor the benefit and protection thereof allowed unto them. For as long as they were out of the protection of the law, so as every Englishman might oppresse, spoyle and kill them without controulment, how was it possible they should bee other than outlawes and enemies to the Crowne of England? If the King would not admit them to the condition of subjects, how could they learn to acknowledge and obey him as their Sovereign? When they might not converse or commerce with any civill men, nor enter into anie towne or citty without perill of their lives, whither should they flie but into the woods and mountains, and there live in a wild and barbarous manner? If the English magistrates would not rule them by the lawe, which doth punish treason and murder and theft by death, but leave them to be ruled by their own lords and lawes, why should they not embrace their own Brehon law, which punisheth no offence but with a fine or erich? If the Irish bee not permitted to purchase estates of freehold or inheritance, which might descend to their children according to the course of our common lawe, must

they not continue their old custom of tanistries, which makes all their possessions uncertaine and brings confusion, barbarism and incivillitie? In a word, if the English woulde neither in peace govern them by lawe, nor could in warre roote them out by the sworde, must they not needes bee prickes in their eyes, and thornes in their hides till the worlde's end."

Though the English had possession of only one-third of the island, they cantonized the whole country amongst ten English families, and called themselves owners and lords of the soil of the whole country. Nothing was left to be granted or enjoyed by the natives; nor can there be found for the space of 350 years after Henry's invasion a single record of a grant of any land to an Irishman of any degree, except a grant from the Crown to the King of Thomond of his own land, during the minority of Henry III, and the grant or treaty with Roderick O'Connor, the King of Connaught, by Henry II.

THESE ENGLISH GRANTEES BECAME A NEW SET OF PETTY SOVEREIGNS,

to the irreparable damage of the country, and Sir John Davies assures us that our great English lords could not endure that any Kings should reign in Ireland but themselves ; nay, they could hardly endure that the Crown of England itself should exercise any jurisdiction over them. They exercised more arbitrary jurisdiction and authority in their territories than any English monarch did over the Kingdom. No wonder, then, that this new race of English Kings in Ireland should, as Sir John Davies further observes, oppose and resist every attempt of the English government to admit the Irish into a full participation of the laws and constitution. For by these grants and confiscations of whole provinces and several kingdoms, these few Anglo-Norman lords assumed to be the proprietors of all the lands, so that there was no possibility of settling the natives in any of their possessions, and consequently the conquest of the whole country became an utter impossibility, otherwise than by the complete extirpation of the whole native race, which

they were in fact unable, and probably unwilling, to accomplish. The Irish who inhabited the lands that were subdued to the foreign yoke, were in the condition of slaves and villeins, and thereby were rendered more valuable to their conquerors than if they had been allowed to become free subjects to the Crown of England; and as these oppressive and rapacious land-robbers flattered themselves with the pleasing prospect of realizing their several grants to their full nominal extent, they eagerly sought to extend their system of vassalage and slavery, which could not be accomplished if the Irish outside the Pale were permitted to receive the King's protection and become liege men and free subjects. Thus, early in the history of English government in Ireland, were the peace, welfare and prosperity of the Irish people sacrificed to the inordinate greed and corrupt selfishness of some few men in power.

The same author, "than whom," says Plowden, "no man ever more studied the reciprocal interests of England and Ireland, tells us plainly, that this handful of monopolizers of the whole power and profit of the nation opposed its union with England, because that would have abridged and cut off a great part of that greatness which they had promised unto themselves; they persuaded the King of England, that it was unfit to communicate the lawes of England with them; that it was the best policie to hold them as aliens and enemies, and to prosecute them with a continual warre. Hereby they obtained another royal prerogative and power, which was to make warre and peace at their pleasure in every part of the Kingdome; which gave them an absolute command over the bodies, lands and goods of the English subjects heere. The truth is, that those great English lords did, to the uttermost of their power, crosse and withstand the enfranchisement of the Irish, for the causes before expressed, wherein I must still cleare and acquit the crown and state of England of negligence or ill policy."

Not only the general state policy of England was misdirected and abused by the servants of the crown in Ireland, in order to increase and perpetuate disunion and

hatred between the two nations, but the very sources of justice and legislation were poisoned and corrupted to the same intent. We have the testimony of records of undoubted authority: "That the Irish generally were held and reputed aliens, or rather enemies, to the crown of England, inasmuch as that they were not only disabled to bring anie actions, but they were so far out of the protection of the lawe as it was often

ADJUDGED NO FELONY TO KILL A MERE IRISHMAN

in the time of peace. By the 4th Chap. of the Statutes, made at Trim, 25th Henry VI (A. D. 1447), it was enacted, that if any were found with their upper lips unshaven for the space of a fortnight, (it was the Irish fashion to wear the beard on the upper lip) it should be lawful for any man to take them and their goods as Irish enemies and ransom them. Another very singular statute was passed, to commit the punishment of offenders to every private liegeman of the King, without any reference to trial by judge or jury, (28th Henry VI, c. 11, A. D. 1450.) Rewards were put upon the heads of the Irish, at the mere private surmise, suspicion, or personal resentment of any Englishman, for it was enacted that it shall be lawful for every liegeman of the King—all manner of notorious and known thieves, and thieves found robbing, etc., to kill and take them without impeachment, arraignment or grievance to him—to be done by our lord the King, his justices, officers or any of his ministers, for any such manslaughter or taking; and that every man shall be rewarded for such killing or taking by one penny of every plough, and one farthing of every cottage, within the barony where the manslaughter was done. This inhuman encouragement to murder was further increased by larger rewards given to those who should execute summary justice by their own fallible or corrupt judgments upon persons going to rob and steal, or coming from robbing and stealing; for (by 50th Edwd. IV, c. 21 A. D. 1465) it was enacted, that it should be lawful to all manner of men that found any thieves robbing by day or by night, *or going or coming to rob or steal, in or out,*

going or coming, having no faithful man of good name in their company in English apparel, upon any of the liege people of the King, to take and kill those *and cut off their heads* without any impeachment of our sovereign lord the King, his heirs, officers or ministers, or of any others; and of any heads so cut off in the county of Meath, that the cutter of the said head, and his ayders there to him, cause the said head so cut off in the county of Meath, to be brought to the portreeve of the town of Trim, and the portreeve to put it upon a stake or spear upon the castle of Trim, and that the said portreeve, of Trim, should give him his writing under the seal of the said town, testifying the bringing of the said head to him. And that it should be lawful for the bringer of the said head and his ayders to the same, to distrein and levy with their own hands of every man having one plough land in the barony where the thief was so taken, two-pence; half a plough land, one penny; and every man having a house and goods to the value of forty shillings, one penny; and of every other cottier having house and smoak, one halfpenny. And if the portreeve should refuse such certificate, he was to forfeit £10 recoverable by action.

Although the printed Statutes of Ireland go not to so early a date, yet Sir John Davies quotes

THE FAMOUS STATUTES OF KILKENNY,

which are preserved in the Castle at Dublin; they were passed in the 40th year of King Edwd. III (A. D. 1366), and although "they were chiefly intended," says Plowden, "to correct the degeneracy of the English, yet had they the strongest tendency to aggravate the rancorous animosity of the two nations." "In the 40th year of his reign," says Davies, "King Edward held that famous Parliament at Kilkenny, wherein many notable lawes were enacted, which doo showe and lay open how much the English colonies were corrupted at that time, and doo infallibly prove that which is laide downe befoer that they were wholly degenerate and faln away from their obedience. For, first it appeareth by the preamble of

those lawes, that the English of this realm, before the coming of Lionel, Duke of Clarence, were at that time become meare Irish in their language, names, apparell, and all their manner of living, and had rejected the English lawes and submitted themselves to the Irish, with whom they had made marriages and alliances, which tended to the utter ruine and destruction of the commonwealth. Therefore, *alliance* by marriage, *nurture of infants, and gossipred* with the Irish are by this statute made high treason. Again, if anie man of English race should use an Irish name, Irish language, or Irish apparell, or any other guise or fashion of the Irish, if he had lands or tenements, the same should be seized, till he had given security to the chancery, to conform himself in all points to the English manner of living. And if he had no lands, his bodie was to be taken and imprisoned, till he found surety as aforesaid." And again the same author in his Disc. p. 174, etc., says: "But the most wicked and mischievous custome of all others was that of *Coygne and Livery*, often before mentioned, which consisted in taking of *mans-meate, horse meate, and money* of all the inhabitants of the country at the will and pleasure of the soldier, who as the phrase of the Scripture is, *did eate up the people as it were bread*, for he had no other entertainment. This extortion was originally Irish, for they used to lay *bonaght*, (that is, freequarters) upon their people, and never gave their soldiers any other pay. But when the English had learned it, they used it with more insolencey and made it more intolerable, for this oppression was not temporary, or limited either to place or time, but because there was everywhere a continuall warre either offensive or defensive, and every lord of a countrie, and every marcher made warre and peace at his pleasure, it became universal and perpetuall; and was indeede the most heavy oppression that ever was used in anie Christian or Heathen Kingdom, and therefore *vox oppresorum*, this crying sinne did drawe down as great or greater plagues upon Ireland than the oppression of the *Israelites* did draw upon the land of Egypt. For the plagues of Egypt, though they were grievous,

were of a short continuance; but these plagues of Ireland lasted 400 years together. This extortion of coygne and livery did produce two notorious effects. First, it made the land waste; next, it made the people idle. For when the husbandman had laboured all the yeare, the soldiers did in one night consume the fruites of all his labour, *longique perit labor irritus anne.* Had he reason then to manure the land for the next year? * * * *

HEREUPON, OF NECESSITY, CAME DEPOPULATION,

banishment and extirpation of the better class of subjects, and such as remained became idle and lookers-on, expecting the event of those miserable and evil times, so as this extreme extortion and oppression had been the true cause of idleness in this Irish nation; and that rather the vulgar sort have chosen to be beggars in forraign countries, than to manure their own fruitful soil at home. Lastly, this oppression did, of force and necessity, make the Irish a crafty people; for such as are oppressed and live in slavery, are ever put to their shifts, *ingenium mala semper movent*, and it is said in an ancient discourse *of the decay of Ireland*, that though '(this custom of *Coygne and Livery*)' were first invented in Hell, yet if it had been used and practiced there, as it hath been in Ireland, it had long since destroyed the very kingdom of Belzebub."

The limited scope of this work will not afford space in which to tell the story of the reigns of the sixteen monarchs who rose in England from the invasion of Ireland by Henry II, to the reformation under Henry VIII. Suffice it to sum it all up in a sentence. It was an uninterrupted series of oppression by the rulers, and continual discord, warfare and wretchedness of the people.

Henry VIII was the first monarch who assumed the title of King of Ireland; his predecessors had been contented with the style and title of Lord of Ireland conferred upon Henry II by Pope Adrian IV. 'The collation of the royal dignity by the Irish nation alone, is a proof and a full recognition by England, of the absolute sov-

ereignty and independence of the Irish nation. (Plowden, Vol. 1, p. 54).

"From the first settlement of the English in Ireland, the acquisition of estates at the expense of the natives seemed to be their only object. Hence, the people who possessed the lands were never viewed in the light of subjects to the crown, but as enemies, to be exterminated by the new lords of the soil, or

NATIVES, TO BE CIVILIZED BY ROBBERY AND OUTLAWRY.

Cox presents us with the germ of this systematic plunder. "He says that so far back as the year 1559 it was one of the instructions given to the Earl of Sussex, when he came over as Lord Deputy, to people Ulster with English. But Sussex was sufficiently engaged in Leinster, where he had reduced Leix and Offaly into shire land by the names of Kings and Queens counties, and when he was spreading civilization by the venal agencies of fire and sword, and he had no time to fulfil these commands of the English court. An offer was however made ten years later by Sir Thomas Gerrard, of Lancashire, for the planting of the Glynnes and Clandeboy. His proposal is dated March 15, 1569; but no steps were at that time taken on this proposition.

EFFECTS OF THE INVASION ON THE CHARACTER OF THE PEOPLE.

Before entering upon the means adopted by successive sovereigns of England, and particularly their local deputies in Ireland, it may be well for the general reader carefully to digest the opinion of the amiable and conservative historian, Plowden, on this subject. In his Historical Review of the State of Ireland, Vol. 1, p. 2 he, philosophically considering the subject of the above heading, submits the following remarks: "Although the nature of man be homogeneous, yet different portions of the human race differ from each other by properties, qualities, and habits, so strongly distinctive as nearly to approximate to a difference of species. Many are the gradations and shades of these distinctions. True it is,

different political systems produce powerful effects upon mankind; they go great lengths, but not the whole way towards changing the innate genius, spirit and character of a nation. To a close and impartial observer, the original national character will manifest itself, up to the remotest antiquity, under the strongest influence of improvement or debasement. Without entering into a philosophical disquisition of the immediate causes of a variety in national characters, we may be allowed to attribute much to the air and soil of particular countries, although at distant periods of time, many may be the instances of changes, suspensions, and apparent extinctions, of the most marked characters in the same nations. Faintly, if at all, can we trace a single line of the old Grecian Punic or Roman characters, through modern Turkey, on the coasts of Barbary, or in the territorial possessions of the Court of Rome. But who shall assert that a melioration of the political systems of government in those countries would not vivify the smothered embers, and rouse into a flame that very spirit, which was once the dread of the day, and has since been the astonishment of posterity? Yet Ireland undoubtedly stands prominently conspicuous amongst the nations of the universe, a solitary instance, in which neither the destructive hand of time, nor the devastating arm of oppression, nor the widest variety of changes in the political system of government, could alter or subdue, much less wholly extinguish, the national genius, spirit and character of its inhabitants."

EARLY CONFISCATIONS OF THE SOIL.

Available means are not at hand for computing the amount of confiscations of land during this period. In subsequent years a better record has been kept and the reader will find some interesting facts and figures upon this subject in succeeding pages.

Plowden, in his Historical Review of the State of Ireland, Vol. 1, pages 164–5, quotes the Earl of Clare as follows:

"After the expulsion of James from the throne of England, the old inhabitants made a final effort for the re-

covery of their ancient power, in which they were once more defeated by an English army, and the slender relics of Irish possessions became the subject of fresh confiscation. From the report made by the commissioners appointed by the Parliament of England in 1688, it appears that the Irish subjects outlawed for the rebellion of 1698, amounted to 3978, and that their Irish possessions, as far as could be computed, were of the *annual* value of two hundred and eleven thousand six hundred and twenty-three pounds—comprising one million sixty thousand and ninety-two acres. This fund was sold under the authority of an English act of Parliament, to defray the expense incurred by England in reducing the rebels of 1688; and the sale introduced into Ireland a new set of adventurers."

"It is a very curious and important speculation to look back to the forfeitures Ireland incurred in the last century. The superficial contents of the Island are calculated at eleven million forty-two thousand six hundred and eighty-two acres. Let us now examine the state of forfeitures:

	ACRES.
In the reign of James I, the whole of the province of Ulster was confiscated, containing	2,836,837
Set out by Court of Claims at restoration . . .	7,800,000
Forfeitures of 1688	1,060,792
Total	11,697,629

" So that the whole of your island has been confiscated with the exception of the estates of five or six families of English blood, some of whom had been attainted in the reign of Henry VIII, but recovered their possessions before Tyrone's rebellion, and had the good fortune to escape the pillage of the English Republic inflicted by Cromwell; and no inconsiderable portion of the island has been confiscated twice, or perhaps thrice in the course of a century. The situation, therefore, of the Irish nation at the revolution stands unparalleled in the history of the inhabited world. If the wars of England carried on here from the reign of Elizabeth, had been waged against a foreign country, the inhabitants would have retained their possessions, under the established law of civilized nations, and their country have been annexed as a province to the British Empire."

The greatest plantation (before that of James I,) was that which ensued at the

TERMINATION OF THE WAR AGAINST THE EARL OF DESMOND.

This great Earl possessed vast estates, upon which the eyes of the English adventurers and undertakers had long been lovingly cast. In Kerry, Cork, Waterford and Limerick, his prodigious principality extended over one hundred and fifty miles, and contained 574,624 acres, on which were built numerous houses and castles. This extensive territory was covered with great herds of cattle, and presented an aspect of high cultivation. The Earl was Lord Palatine of Kerry, and Lord of Imokilly. His vassals were numerous, and there were above five hundred gentlemen of his ancient lineage. "He levied coygne and livery upon his tenants in Limerick. He had all the wrecks of the sea in the ports and creeks of Kerry, and a certain sum out of every fishing boat in the ports of Ventry and Ferreters Island. It was said that he was able to raise at a call 2,000 foot and 600 horse." (Smith, An. of Cork, Vol. 1, p. 51.)

At the commencement of the great Geraldine war, the Earl had stood aloof, but his professions of loyalty were disregarded, and, he was summoned by Sir William Pelham, Lord Deputy, to surrender himself a prisoner within twenty days. He refused, for he well knew what his fate would have been if he were mad enough to trust himself into the hands of an English deputy. He was thus precipitated into war, which he waged with great spirit and energy against Pelham. "Desmond, who had engaged in this rebellion inconsiderately," says Leland, "now saw the whole extent of his territory ravaged and depopulated without mercy. His miserable vassals were abandoned to daily slaughter, or to the still more horrible calamity of famine. Fire, famine and slaughter were let loose upon the doomed districts, and the worse than cannibal English soldiers relentlessly slaughtered men, women and infants. One of the plunderers, who afterwards profited by the spoil of the Geraldine, and whose sweet

poetry has earned for him a fame for gentleness his political writings scarcely merits, has in terse and picturesque language chronicled the horrors which made his fortune." (MacNevin's Conf. of Ulster.)

The arms of England triumphed. The Earl met an obscure and painful death at the hands of a traitor, Daniel Kelly, of Morierta. His death ended the war, though not the butcheries of the soldiers, and Munster was pacified by the extermination of her people. The Earl of Desmond and about one hundred and forty of his associates were attainted, and all their honors and estates declared to be forfeited. This plunder was enormous. Desmond's estates alone were estimated at five hundred and seventy-five thousand acres. And thus, to use the language of her admirers, was every obstacle removed to Elizabeth's favorite scheme of

RE-PEOPLING MUNSTER WITH AN ENGLISH COLONY.

Letters were forwarded to every county in England, to encourage younger members of families to become undertakers in Ireland. The forfeitures were divided into seignories, and granted to English knights, esquires, and gentlemen, and they *undertook* to perform certain conditions stipulated in the royal articles for the plantation of the province. Hence came the use of the ominous name of undertaker as applied to these land-robbers of Ireland.

Though 12,000 acres were fixed on as the largest portion for any one undertaker, the Queen, in order suitably to reward Sir Walter Raleigh for his services at Golden Fort (where, after the garrison had surrendered at discretion, he slew every man,) she granted him forty-two thousand acres in Cork and Waterford. Of this immense estate portions were bestowed on the following named undertakers :

	ACRES.
County Waterford, Sir Christopher Hutton	10,910
County Waterford and Cork, Sir Walter Raleigh	42,000
County Waterford and Cork, Richard Bacon	6,000
County Cork, Sir Wareham Saint Leger, ancestor of the Viscounts Doneraile	6,000
County Cork, Hugh Cuffe	6,000
County Cork, Sir Thomas Norris	6,000

County Cork, Arthur Robbins	1,800
County Cork, Sir Arthur Hyde	5,574
County Cork, Francis Beecher	12,000
County Cork, Hugh Worth	12,000
County Cork, Thomas Say	3,778
County Cork, Arthur Hyde, Esq	11,766
County Cork, Edmund Spenser ("gentle poet")	3,028
County Kerry, Sir Edward Denny	6,000
County Kerry, Sir William Herbert	13,276
County Kerry, Charles Herbert	3,768
County Kerry, John Holly	4,422
County Kerry, Captain Jenkin Conway	526
County Kerry, John Champion	1,434
County Limerick, Sir William Courtney	10,500
County Limerick, Francis Berkely	7,250
County Limerick, Robert Anslow	2,599
County Limerick, Richard and Alexander Felton	3,026
County Limerick, Edmund Mainwaring	3,747
County Limerick, Wm. Trenchard	12,000
County Limerick, George Thornton	1,500
County Limerick, Sir George Boucher	12,880
County Limerick, Henry Billingsley	11,800
Inverary, Thomas, Earl of Ormond	3,000
Inverary, Sir Edward Tilton	11,515
Total	205,490

The most striking feature in the conditions of this plantation was the exclusion of the owners of the soil from even the subordinate station of tenantry.

NO IRISH WERE TO BE ADMITTED

to stand even in that humble relation to the successful plunderers who usurped their lands—a provision of tyranny, possibly the most impudent that ever was made. But it was disregarded. Some English historians have the coolness to regret the plantation of Munster was a failure because some of the planters did not respect the wise provisions of the "plot of the Queen's offer," and because Leland says "leases and conveyances were made to many of the Irishry." In many instances the lands were abandoned to the old possessors; and where the undertakers entered upon their seignories, they did not reside, but appointed idle, ignorant, corrupt and oppressive agents. Neither did they comply with a still more

necessary and wise condition of the "Queen's plot,'" namely, to make provisions for effectual defense. They were thriftless gamesters, these undertakers; they would enjoy as largely as they could, the property of the people, but they were not honest enough to discharge the noble duties of proprietorship, nor wise enough to make due provision against the natural and just enmity of those whose plunder had enriched them.

Ulster, however, proved to be a more generous field for the undertaker, for even before James' systematic scheme was entered upon, we read that "about the year 1584 a thousand Scottish Highlanders, called 'Red-shanks,' of the septs and families of the Cambiles (probably, says MacNevin, Campbells), Macdonnells and Magalanes, led by Surleboy, a Scottish chieftain, invaded Ulster. Other surrounding parties of their nation had already possessed themselves of the lands of Irish chieftains at the Glynnes and the Route in Antrim. It was at the beginning of the fifteenth century that the settlement of the Macdonnells took place in Antrim. They were a younger branch of the MacDonalds, who were Kings and Lords of the Isle." One of them, Angus Oge, Lord of the Isles, married the daughter of O'Cahan, the chief of the O'Cahan's, of Arachty. The marriage portion, this distinguished lady brought to her husband, consisted of a number of handsome young men, "whose posterity are yet in the Isles and are known by the peculiarity of their names to belong to that race.

John of Isles, the second son of John, Lord of the Western Isles, or Æbrides, was established at the Glynnes, in Argyleshire; his descendants settled in the north of Ireland, one of whom was Alexander, who got a gold sword and silver gilt spear from the Earl of Sussex in 1557, for his services in Scotland, and the monastery and its lands of Glenarm were given to him. His son was Sorlebuidh (commonly written Sorleboy,) whose son was the first Earl of Antrim. Sorlebuidh married Mary, daughter of Conn O'Neill.

These invaders in time intermarried with the Irish, and became the most formidable enemies of England in her

designs of settlement. It was ostensibly to root out this Scottish colony that Elizabeth sent Essex to Ireland, but his failure only fixed them more firmly in their place and in 1603 James I confirmed Sir Ronald MacDonnell in the principality of the Route.

The settlement of

THE MONTGOMERIES IN THE ARDES OF DOWN

presents some singular features worthy of note, inasmuch as they came with clearer hands and a fairer title than any of the Scotch or English adventurers who had plundered the people out of their lands since the advent of the Anglo-Norman. Hugh, the leader of the Montgomeries into Ireland, was a well descended adventurer, and in addition to his good birth, he was connected with the Earl of Eglintown family; he possessed spirit and talent. It appears that Conn O'Neill had sent some of his followers into the town of Castlereagh, and they had become involved in an affray with the soldiers, some of whom were killed. Conn and a number of his people were found guilty of levying war on the Queen (Elizabeth), and he was sent to prison at Carrickfergus. While Conn's matter was pending the Queen died; the said Hugh Montgomery, who was cognizant of the particulars of the affair, obtained from Conn O'Neill a grant of half his lands, on the condition of effecting his escape and giving him a shelter. His escape effected, Conn went to Scotland, and was well received by Hugh and his wife, called Laird and Lady Braidstone.

The territories of Conn O'Neill were very extensive, consisting of the entire parishes of Breda, Knock, Kirkdonnell, Hollywood, Donaghadee, Grey Abbey, St. Andrews, and a great part of the parish of Drum. The Laird and Conn proceeded to London, and by the influence of the former, with the Scotch James, obtained Conn's pardon. Conn was graciously received at court—as others of the name had been received before—and orders given for letters patent concerning his Majesty's pleasure in the matter of the grant to Hugh Montgomery under condition that the lands should be planted with British

Protestants, and that no grant of fee farm should be made to any person of mere Irish extraction. A great change was afterwards made in these letters patent, whereby Mr. James Hamilton obtained one-third of the whole estates, "so that the sea coasts might be possessed by Scottish men, who would be traders proper for his Majesty's future advantage." Castlereagh, which Conn had desired to retain, was considered *too great a favor for an Irishman.* Hamilton and Montgomery were both Knighted. The two Knights and Conn O'Neill executed tripartite indentures to the effect of the King's pleasure, but by some underhanded arrangement the King's patent issued only to Hamilton, and he was declared trustee for Conn O'Neill and Sir Hugh Montgomery. In order to reconcile Montgomery to yielding up a portion of his moiety of the O'Neill lands, the King promised to compensate him out of the Abbey lands and impropriations, which in a few months he was to grant in fee. It soon became evident that Hamilton had made a better bargain than Montgomery had, and obtained a better share of the dividend, although he came later into the field. He managed to engross in the patent many more church lands than Montgomery had, "and," says an old chronicler, "he was so wise as to take, on easy terms, endless leases of much more of Conn's third part, and from other despairing Irishes than Sir Hugh had done. Having taken possession of their newly-acquired lands, they were raised a step in the peerage by the titles respectively of Lord Montgomery, of Ardes, and Lord Hamilton, of Claneboy.

Conn O'Neill, as might be expected, was not long left his thirds, for on the 14th of March, 1606, only three years after his first contract with Montgomery, he executed to him a feoffment of *all his lands*, and also a deed of sale of the timber growing on four of his townlands. And now the Montgomery plantation began in right earnest. The land, however, was found to be mostly without inhabitants, the soil had been reaped with fire and sword, and was desolate; head rents must be paid to the King, and there were no tenants to pay them. To repair these evils, the undertakers made some of their friends and

retainers sharers under them as freeholders and laborers. There came several farmers under Montgomery, gentlemen from Scotland, "of the names of Shaw, Calderwood, Boyd, Keith, Maxwell, Ross, Barclay, Moore, Bayley, whose posterity hold there to this day. By the Montgomeries some foundations were made for towns, as Newtown, Donaghadee, Comber, Old and New Grey Abbey; Hamilton also founded towns and corporations, as Bangor, Hollywood, Kilileagh (with a strong castle) and Ballywater. When these things were done, and a fair promise thereby given that the new settlements would have towns and marts of trade, the Scots came there willingly and numerously, and became tenants and subtenants to their countrymen, and the land, *though not with its own children*, came to be peopled again.

From a report of the commissioners appointed by Parliament to enquire into the forfeited lands granted by William after the revolution of 1688, the following extract is given:

"The commissioners met with great difficulties in their inquiries, which were occasioned by the backwardness of the people of Ireland to give any information, out of fear of the grantees, whose displeasure in that kingdom was not easily borne, and by reports industriously spread and believed, that their inquiry would come to nothing. Nevertheless, it appeared to them that the persons outlawed in England, since the 13th of February, 1688, on account of the late rebellion, amounted in number to fifty-seven, and in Ireland to three thousand nine hundred and twenty-one. That in all the land in the several counties in Ireland belonging to the forfeited persons, as far as they could reckon, made 1,060,792 acres, worth £211,623, which by computation of six years purchase for a life, and thirteen years for the inheritance, came to the full value of £268,138. That some of those lands had been restored to the old proprietors, by virtue of the articles of Limerick and Gallway, and by his majesty's favor, and the reversal of outlawries, and royal pardons, obtained chiefly by gratifications to such persons as had abused his majesty's royal bounty and commission.

"Besides these restitutions, which they thought to be corruptly procured, they gave an account of seventy-six grants and custodiums under the great seal of Ireland; as to the Lord Rumney three grants now in being, containing 49,517 acres; to the Earl of Albemarle in two grants, 108,633 acres, in possession and reversion; to William Bentwick, Esq., Lord Woodstock, 135,820 acres of land; to the Earl of Athlone, to grants, containing 26,480 acres, etc, to the Earl of Galloway, on grant, 36,148 acres, wherein they observed that the estates so mentioned, did not yield so much to the grantees as they were valued at, because, as most of them had abused his Majesty in the real value of the estates, so their agents had imposed upon them, and had either sold or let the greater part of those lands at an under value. But after all deductions and allowances, there yet remained £1,699,343.14s. which they lay before the Commons as the gross value of the estates since the 13th day of February, 1688, and not restored; besides a grant under the great seal of Ireland, dated the 13th of May, 1695, passed to Mrs. Elizabeth Villiers, now Countess of Orkney, of all the private estates of the late King James (except some part in grant to Lord Athlone), containing 95,649 acres, worth per annum £25,995.18s., value total, £331,943.9s. Concluding that there was payable out of this estate, £2,000 per annum to Mrs. Godfrey for her life, and that almost all the old leases determined in 1701; and this estate would answer the value above mentioned." This report is signed by the Parliamentary Commissioners, Francis Annesley, John Trenchard, James Hamilton and Henry Langford. The Court Commissioners were Henry, Earl of Drogheda, Sir Richard Leving and Sir Francis Brewster. It would be interesting to discover what were the valuable services rendered by Mrs. Elizabeth Villiers (she was made Countess of Orkney in 1695) in quelling the insurrection in Ireland, to entitle her to so munificent a reward as a grant of 95,649 acres, at that time worth £25,995.18s.

SUBMISSION OF THE NORTHERN CHIEFTAINS.

The Ulster princes, beaten and baffled on every hand, deserted by some of their adherents who took the bribes of England, and maddened by dissensions, were at last obliged to come to terms of peace. Elizabeth, knowing and acknowledging the prowess of the O'Neill, was willing to make favorable terms. The deputy, Mountjoy, met O'Neil at Mellefont Abbey in March, 1603. Terms were there arranged. The Ulster prince should relinquish the title of O'Neill, and assume that of Earl of Tyrone, and make submission to the English throne, but was allowed free exercise of his religion, and the greater portions of his lands should become his by a grant from the English crown. These were certainly favorable terms and speak well for the high opinion entertained of O'Neill by Elizabeth.

ACCESSION OF JAMES I.

Scarcely had the negotiations been concluded when James succeeded to the throne on the death of Elizabeth, as a prince of Celtic blood, and the son of a Catholic mother, the Irish expected kindly treatment at the hands of James. How miserably they were disappointed is well known. The pedantic and hypocritical king was surrounded by a lot of adventurers, hungry Scotch vultures, ready to whet their beaks on any kind of prey. James was equally needy and extravagant. What could he do to satisfy his followers and provide for himself? Should any estates become the property of the crown he could satisfy all. It was soon discovered that O'Neill was uneasy, and a pretense was made of finding a communication which indicated that he and other princes were implicated in a conspiracy to murder the lord deputy. He was summoned to Dublin and afterwards to London to answer to the charge, but wisely believing that there was no justice to be had in either place, and being utterly unable to offer any armed resistance to the encroachments of the "hangers-on" of James, he fled to Normandy, and thence to Italy, visiting most of the European courts, where he was received with great distinc-

tion. O'Sullivan, who had made such a gallant resistance in the South, fled to Spain where he distinguished himself in the service of the State, and was treacherously assassinated by an Englishman. Cahir O'Doherty, who was a most "trooly loil" subject of England, was forced into a revolt, and the whole province of Ulster was confiscated to the crown, and conferred by James on his beggarly Scotch retainers, and on some London companies as an equivalent for various loans made to sustain the bibulous and lecherous monarch, his lackeys and misstresses.

One hundred and ten thousand acres in Tyrone and Tyrconnell were thus given to the mercer's, tailor's, tinner's and other societies. A commission was instituted to examine into defective titles, and 385,000 acres in Leinster, held on what the commissioners were pleased to call defective titles, were also confiscated, and conferred on the *commissioners* and their friends.

Thus was the entire province of Ulster and no inconsiderable portion of Leinster, taken from the rightful owners. The Irish were reduced to abject poverty, their religion banned, education save by the robber's band, forbidden; the native chiefs were driven into exile, and nothing was heard of them for some time, save as free lances in the armies of every nation opposed to England.

REIGN OF JAMES THE FIRST.

On the 5th of April, 1603, James I. ascended the throne. The genius of his predecessor had removed every difficulty to his government in England; and in Ireland, he was the first English monarch whose dominion extended over the whole island. Though to Elizabeth, under the policy of the crafty and astute Mountjoy, is due the credit of the submission of Hugh O'Neill; she did not live to enjoy the homage of her brave foe. His capitulation was not signed until after her death, a fact which was wisely concealed from him. The two great northern chiefs, Hugh O'Neill and Roderick O'Donnell were received at Court in a flattering manner, and O'Neill was confirmed in all his property and possessions

with the title, Earl of Tyrconnell. James published an act of oblivion and indemnity. The English laws of inheritance and English tenures were adopted in place of the customs formerly prevailing of Tanistry and Gavelkind. "The commission of Grace" issued, under which the Irish Lords yielded their estates to the Crown, and received them again under the English titles of Knight Service or Common Soccage ; inquisitions were holden into the amount of land in possession of the chieftains, in order that none should receive a re-grant of more than was actually in his possession ; and the tenants under each lord, relieved of uncertain contributions and exactions, held their lands subject to an annual rent and free tenures. O'Neill having made his submission, their was but little resistance to the

INTRODUCTION OF ENGLISH LAW INTO ULSTER.

The country was divided into counties, and Sheriffs appointed to administer the provisions of the English law. Peace seemed, for a brief moment, to hover over this war-desolated and harassed country. "Equal laws and civilized customs," under English rule, were intended solely for the benefit of those who conformed to the practices of the Church, as by law established. An Act of Uniformity, passed in a Parliament of the Pale, in the second year of Elizabeth, was published in Dublin by the King's Council, by which attendance on Catholic worship was prohibited under severe penalties. On the 4th of July, 1605, a royal proclamation issued, by the terms of which James effectually dispelled the ideas of all who had vainly expected freedom of conscience, or even the barest religious toleration, from him. He told "his beloved subjects" that he would not admit anything of the kind, and fixed a certain day for every Catholic priest to depart the realm or abide the consequences. "And then commenced a religious war of great cruelty and folly. The magistrates and citizens of Dublin were enjoined to repair to the churches of the Establishment. The prisons were peopled with "recusants," the priests were forced to fly the country, or else conceal themselves in secret

places, to avoid the gibbet and the lash. The terrors of the penal law, let loose by the theologic fury of the King, were increased by the avarice and cruelty of the sanguinary Chichester. Up to the year 1605 the sees of Derry, Raphoe and Clogher, which extended over the greater part of Ulster, had been occupied by Roman Catholic prelates; and the abbeys and monasteries, which had been formally dissolved half a century before, still continued to be the centers round which flocked numerous priests, friars and other ecclesiastical persons. But the publication of this Proclamation was the signal for returning into the King's hands those edifices of religion and ejecting their inmates. And what made these oppressions more bitter in the North was the striking fact that there, as we may conclude from Davies' account of Chichester's progress in Ulster in 1607, there was not a *single* Protestant outside the numerous garrisons of the English. By the same authority, we find that up to this period it was impossible that the principles of the Reformation could have been at all known in Ulster, for no religious teaching had been provided for the people. The tidings of a reformed religion were preached from no pulpit; the rectors and bishops who had been appointed were non-resident, and the Catholics were reduced to the alternative of enduring penalties for the profession of the faith they had been reared in or embracing a religion in which they had received no spiritual instruction. All apprehension of an Irish war being allayed by the submission of the northern chieftains, whose powers seemed utterly broken, my Lord Deputy proceeded to *settle* those counties. The expedient was adopted of getting up fictitious plots and fastening them upon whatever party they designed to plunder and ruin. The King's Bishop of Meath gives this account of the matter, which has been generally accepted as the most correct version: "A. D. 1607 there was a providential

DISCOVERY OF ANOTHER REBELLION IN IRELAND,

the Lord Chichester being deputy, the discoverer *not being willing to appear*, a letter from him *not subscribed*,

was superscribed to Sir William Usher, clerk of the Council, and dropped in the council chamber of Dublin Castle, in which was mentioned a design for seizing the Castle and surrendering the Deputy with a general revolt and dependence on the Spanish forces; and this also for religion, for particulars, whereof, says the bishop, "I refer to *that* letter dated March the 19th, 1607." By such, and similar means, "Artful Cecil" succeeded in fixing upon O'Neill and O'Donnell a charge of treason, to sustain which, there had not been then, or unto this day a particle of evidence disclosed. Having a wholesome terror of juries, which in those days, as in later ones, have ever proved in the hands of English manipulators, pliant tools for the sure condemnation of Irish patriots. The chiefs, with their families, took shipping from Lough Swilly, and departed to France, never more to return. Here was brought about the very state of affairs that James had long desired. "Nothing," says Dr. Leland, "could be more favorable to that passion, which James indulged for reforming Ireland, by the introduction of English laws and civility. The flight of the chiefs was rapidly followed by a commission empowered to deal with "traitors" and to take an account of *the lands which were to escheat to the Crown.* The two Earls were duly attainted of High Treason, together with several other chieftains, and the darling project of the rapacious James.

THE PLANTATION OF ULSTER

commenced. But so flagitious did the proceeding appear, even to himself, that he feared the representations of his outlawed and fugitive subjects would meet with a ready credence from the sympathies of Catholic Europe. He resolved to prevent such a result by publishing a statement of his own case, which he attempted by proclamation, dated 15th November, 1607. It is the basest and most despicable document preserved amongst the State papers of the English Government. It stated what was notoriously false, that the Earls "were base and rude in their originall;" that they had not their pos-

sessions by lawful or lineal descent from ancestors of blood or virtue; and that their only reason for flight was the private knowledge and inward terror "of their own guiltiness." A much more unblushing falsehood was, that they had endured no molestation on the ground of religion, and that the manners of the Earls were so barbarous and unchristian, that it would be unreasonable to trouble them about any form of faith, much more to this purpose, equally malignant and untrue, did James's proclamation contain; but it was without effect. Its manifest falsehood and undisguised rancor deprived it of any power to work evil against the fugitives, in that quarter where James was most anxious to misrepresent and injure them. They continued the honored guests of the courts of Europe, illustrious examples of the great reverses of fortune, and of the perfidy of monarchs."

"The Irish chiefs possessed the *suzerainte* but not the property of the soil; consequently the guilt of O'Neill and O'Dougherty, though ever so clearly proved, could not affect the right to their feudatories, who were not even accused of treason. The English law of forfeiture, in itself sufficiently unjust, never declared that the innocent tenants should be sacrificed for the rebellion of the landlords; it only placed the king in the place of the person whose property had been forfeited, and left all the relations of the landlord unaltered. Yet were all the actual holders of lands in these devoted districts dispossessed without even the shadow of a pretense; and this abominable wickedness is even at the present day eulogised by many as the consummation of political wisdom." (De-Beaumont's Ireland, Vol. 1.)

However not without one gallant, even if futile, protest was the great iniquity perpetrated. Sir Cahir O'Dougherty, the prince of Inishowen, a man young in years, determined to assert his independence. Gathering his followers around him, he surprised the town of Derry, slew the governor and took various English stations. He pursued a vigorous guerilla warfare for about five months, when a chance shot having killed their leader, his followers dispersed, and any who fell into the hands of the English were savagely executed with but short shrift.

This was the last blow attempted in Ulster, which thenceforward presented a scene of misery, desolation and helplessness on the part of the people, which afforded the reforming spirit of James an unobstructed field in which to carry out his long contemplated designs of rapine and spoliation. A large tract of land in the six northern counties, Tyrowen the principality of O'Neill; Coleaiine, or Derry, O'Cahan's country; Donegal, the principality of O'Donnell; Fermanagh, McGuire's country; Cavan, O'Reilly's country; and Armagh fell into James' hands by a forced construction of the law of forfeiture and escheat. The suppression of O'Dougherty's attempt cleared the way for the completion of the policy of fraud and violence by which a splendid country was torn from its just possessors, and an ancient people banished from the dwellings of their fathers. By means of these shameful sham-plots, or pretended conspiracies to excite rebellion, five hundred thousand acres of land were basely pillaged and handed over to the rapacious James of England.

James determined to dispose of the lands to his English and Scotch subjects, to the exclusion of the original Irish owners. For the absence of integrity and national honor in such a proceeding, there was in the opinion of the king and his courtiers, an ample compensation in the purposes of peace and conciliation to which he intended to apply the vast bulk of forfeited property which had come into his hands. That his opinions and determinations on this subject were of long standing, we may assume, from the fact that Lord Bacon's first suggestions for the planting of Ireland bear date long before the flight of the Earls. Indeed, it is impossible to resist the belief that from the beginning of this reign Cecil and the other courtiers, surrounded by hungry, ambitious and reckless adventurers having hoards of useless retainers, with a deficient public revenue, and anxious it may be admitted, to establish permanent peace in Ireland, where the most enormous expenses had been incurred in the long continuance of war, had planned the sham-plot, the flight and the forfeiture, at once to

get rid of the enemies of England, to provide for their hungry applicants, and

TO GARRISON IRELAND FOR THE ENGLISH CROWN.

The six counties which were marked as the prey of the undertakers for the Wingfields, the Caulfields, the Chichesters, and the Blayneys, exceeded in length and breadth the large counties of Yorkshire and Lancashire, in England. No part of Ireland was more rich in natural fertility and cultivation, and though the barbarous hand of English rapine had been busy during the recent wars with its teeming fields, it yet bore to the hungry hordes that awaited its partition, the abundant promise of untold wealth. James himself is the safest witness that can be called to testify to the natural wealth and fertility of the soil he was about to plant. In seeking to persuade "the incomparable city of London" to undertake a Northern Plantation, he presented them with the following "Reasons and Motives":

THE LAND COMMODITIES WHICH THE NORTH OF IRELAND PRODUCETH.

"The country is well watered, generally by an abundance of springs, brooks and rivers; and plenty of fuel, either by means of wood, or where that is wanting of good and wholesome turf.

"It yieldeth store of all necessaries for man's sustenance, in such measures as may not only maintain itself, but also furnish the city of London yearly, with manifold provisions, especially for their fleets, namely, with beef, pork, fish, rye, bere, peas and beans, which will also, in some years, help the dearth of the city and country about, and the storehouses appointed for the relief of the poor.

"As it is fit for all sorts of husbandry, so for breeding of mares and increase of cattle it doth excel, whence may be expected, butter, cheese, hides and tallow.

"English sheep will breed abundantly in Ireland, the sea-coast, and the nature of the soil, being very wholesome for them; and, if need be, wool might be had cheaply and plentifully out of the west parts of Scotland.

"It is held to be good in many places for madder, hops, and woad.

"It affordeth fells of all sorts, in great quantity, red deer, foxes, sheep, lamb, rabbits, martins, squirrels, etc.

"Hemp and flax do more naturally grow there than elsewhere; which being well regarded, might give great provision for canvass, cables, cordage, and such like requisites for shipping, besides thread, linen cloth, and all stuffs made of linen yarn, which is more fine and plentiful there than in all the rest of the kingdom.

"Materials for building—timber, stone of all sorts, limestone, slate and shingles are afforded in most parts of the country, and the soil is good for brick and tile.

"Materials for building of ships, excepting tar, are there to be had in great plenty, and in the country adjoining, the goodliest and largest timber in the woods of Glanconkene and Killetrough that may be, and may compare with any in his Majesty's dominions, which may easily be brought to the sea by Lough Neagh, and the river of the Bann. The fir masts, of all sorts, may be had out of Lochabar, in Scotland, not far distant from the North of Ireland, much more easily than from Norway; other sorts of wood do afford many services, for pipe staves, hogshead staves, clapboard staves, wainscot soap and dyeing ashes, glass and iron work, for iron and copper ore are there plentifully had.

"The country is very plentiful for honey and wax.

"THE SEA AND RIVER COMMODITIES."

"The harbor of the river of Derry is exceeding good, and the road of Portrush and Lough Swilly, not far distant from Derry, tolerable.

"The sea fishing of that coast is very plentiful of all manner of usual sea fish, especially herrings and seals, there being yearly, after Michaelmas, for taking of herrings above seven or eight score of his Majesty's subjects and strangers for lading, besides an infinite number of boats for fishing and killing. Great and profitable fishing are in the next adjacent islands of Scotland, where many Hollanders do fish all the summer season, and do plentifully vend

their fish, and within the Straits much train or fish oil, of seal, herrings, etc, may be made upon that coast.

"As the sea yieldeth very great plenty and variety of fine sea fish, so doth the coast afford an abundance of all manner of sea-fowl, and the rivers greater store of fresh fish than any of the rivers in England.

"There is also some store of good pearls upon this coast, especially within the river of Lough Foyle.

"The coasts be ready for traffic with England and Scotland, and for supply of provision from or to them, and do lie open and convenient for Spain and the Straits, and fittest and nearest for Newfoundland.

THIS COUNTRY, SO BLEST BY NATURE,

in her most bountiful mood, was possessed by a brave, war-like and religious people. They were 'frank, amorous, ireful, sufferable of paines infinite, very glorious, excellent horsemen, delighted with wars, great alms-givers, passing in hospitalitie,' so wrote Campion in his 'Historie of Ireland.'"

"In battle" says Lingard, in his History, Vol. 2, p. 249, "they measured the valour of the combatants by their contempt of artificial assistance; and when they beheld the English Knights covered with iron, hesitated not to pronounce them void of courage. Their own arms were a short lance, or two javelins, a sword called a skean, about fifteen inches long, and an axe of steel called a sparthe. The latter proved a most formidable weapon. It was wielded with one hand, but with such address and impetuosity as generally to penetrate through the best tempered armour. If we were to judge by modern English historians, the Irish people at the accession of James—nay some, like the bigot Hume, have said from the earliest periods—were buried in the most profound barbarism, even though from the fifth century they had enjoyed the light of Christianity, and though the priests and missionaries of the country had preserved, through mediaeval gloom, both faith and learning, and propagated them through the world. In the tenth century, ere the history of England had well begun, and when the greatest part of

Europe was involved in darkness, a steady light of piety and learning continued to shine in this island, and shed its rays over the neighboring countries. In the schools of the continent, the Irish scholars continued to retain their former superiority, and amongst the dwarf intellects of that time towered as giants, (See Morris' His., Vol. 2, p. 30.) In France and Germany, the monasteries of the Irish, the only retirements for piety and learning in an ungodly age, were flourishing, and the fame of Irish scholars was cheerfully recognized. Irish monks founded a school at Glastonbury, in England, where St. Dunstan imbibed under their teaching the very marrow of spiritual learning. There that distinguished ornament of the English Church was learnedly accomplished, according to the acquisitions of the time, in astronomy, arithmetic and geometry; and there, too, he cultivated that sweet taste for music, in which he indulged through his life. (William of Malmesbury's Life of St. Dunstan, Vol. 2, p. 134.)

And so did piety and virtue continue to flourish in Ireland, until by the constant intercourse, both peaceable and warlike, with the Danes, and by their employment as mercenaries of those barbarians in local feuds, the Irish had become familiar with rapine and all turbulent crimes, and a national degeneracy had been thereby produced, which continued increasing up to the time of the English invasion. Then it may, without disparagement to our country, be admitted that the Irish were matched against a people possessing, at that time, superior civilization, greater resources, and a more compact and better system of government. A nation governed by innumerable princes and chiefs, had to meet in battle and to struggle with, in policy, a country having but one center of power, one head, one recognized source of government. It is no shame that with such unequal odds they were worsted in the long contest of ages, and it is a matter of national pride that so noble and unceasing a resistance was made, with such discordant materials.

SOCIAL CONDITION OF THE TWO RACES COMPARED.

But much as Ireland had degenerated since the Eng-

lish invasion, she still enjoyed at the accession of James, a great degree of civilization, when compared with other countries at the same period. Under the rule of her native chieftains, religion had been protected and the country was covered with the noblest architectural monuments of princely piety, many of which subsequently, she was stripped of, by the sacriligeous fury of the English. Laws had been propounded with solemn sanctions, laws repugnant to later notions and to the refinements of modern ages, but suited to the wants, the genius, and the feelings of the people. Among the chieftains had been, and still were many of high accomplishments, courtesy, and valour. The Scotic Chronicle of Ferdun supplies us with a letter written in the reign of Edward III, by Donald O'Neill, king of Ulster, and, as he proudly says "rightful heir to the monarchy of all Ireland," and addressed to the Pope John XXII, and a more impressive and eloquent document will scarcely be found in the pages of history, indicating a degree of high and refined feeling that could not be surpassed, if it could be equaled, in the court of Edward. It is a history of English rule in Ireland from the beginning, told with grave and earnest simplicity, but in language the most eloquent and graceful. There is little evidence in it of that perennial barbarism which Hume attributes to the chiefs and people of Ireland.

The deteriorations which took place has been attributed to many causes, but however that degeneracy was produced, it was signally accelerated by the arrival of the anglo Normans. They came like "ravening wolves and more cunning than foxes;" they drove the inhabitants from their houses and their lands, "to seek shelter like wild beasts in the woods, marshes, and caves;" they sought out the miserable natives even in those dreary shades; they seized on the noble endowments of the church, and destroyed the buildings devoted to piety and education. O'Neill pathetically laments that by the intercourse of the Irish with the English, his countrymen had lost the fine features of the national character, "for," he says in his letter to the Pope, "instead of being like

our ancestors, simple and candid, we have become as artful and designing as themselves."

It must be confessed that the residences of the Irish, contrasting strangely with the splendor of their ecclesiastical architecture, were in most instances mean and temporary, and suited only for a loose, pastoral people. They were slight and composed of hurdles. But this is not to be taken to support the charges of barbarism against the nation, which are completely belied by the course of education, in the management of cattle, in husbandry, in navigation, and in letters, which were administered to their youth, the early commercial dealings with foreign nations, and the long possession of letters. But the social habits in almost every country in Europe were of a low nature, and their standard of social comfort was mean. Great contrasts—noble castles, splendid edifices of piety, looking down upon mean structures of hurdles—were not unusual in England at the time of the first Anglo-Saxon monarchs.

Hume sums up

THE CHARACTER OF THE ANGLO-SAXON RACE—

and doubtless they were not much ameliorated at the time of Henry II, by the Norman invasion—in this manner: "They were in general a rude, uncultivated people, ignorant of letters, unskilled in the mechanic arts, untamed to submission under law and government, addicted to intemperance, riot and disorder. Their best quality was their military courage, which yet was not supported by discipline or conduct. Their want of fidelity to the prince, or to any trust reposed in them, appears strongly in the history of their later period. Even the Normans, notwithstanding the low state of the arts in their own country, characterize them as barbarians when they speak of the invasion made upon them by the Duke of Normandy. The Normans brought with them their habits and their tastes, and some refinement, which was, as Hume says, slowly imparted to the Saxons; and the composite nation, when its adventurers first invaded Ireland, had achieved a certain degree of civilization. Settled

there, they made no exertion to extend this to the natives; they acted merely as needy adventurers, seeking to make easy fortunes, and reckless of the ruin they wrought in the pursuit of wealth and power. In every recorded case, the disasters of conquest have been followed by social amelioration to the conquered people.

("I do not insist," says McNevin in his admirable work, "the Confiscation of Ulster," from which the materials of this sketch have been largely drawn. "I do not insist upon the arrangement that Ireland was never conquered. Yet it is not possible for any English historian to fix, with certainty, the date of the conquest. It certainly was nor in 1172, not yet in 1641. It was, perhaps, in 1800.)

The Anglo-Norman invasion was an unrelieved and unatoned-for calamity to the Irish people; the invasion, up to the reign of James I. never having been completed, the policy of division, and the practices of petty and incessant warfare, were adopted from the first. Whatever superior civilization was enjoyed by the invaders was never imparted to the invaded people; he gave nothing but his vices to his new country. Entrenched within the stinted boundaries of the Pale, his only security was in the weakness of his "enemy," and this was effectually secured by the divisions which the native institutions of Tanistry and chieftainship enabled him to create amongst their numerous kings and princes. The social amelioration of the Irish nation was never thought of by the English adventurers; the country was looked upon as so many estates, and the people as so many enemies. The legislation of the conquerer, the most remarkably cruel, ignorant, and selfish of any of which there is a remaining record, was carefully framed to obstruct the improvement of the nation. Statutes were passed to prevent intermarriages, and all those other social connections, fosterage, gossipred, etc., which the humanity of Irish customs taught, and which would have gradually led to a perfect union of the two nations. Laws were enacted and enforced preventing the exercise of any of the arts or pursuits of peace. Amongst others, Irishmen could

not enter English towns, nor trade with the inhabitants. It was impossible for the Irish either to improve their own institutions, or, assuming them to be superior, to adopt those of the Anglo-Normans. Their expulsion and extermination continued to be for centuries the objects of government, which it sought to effect by remorseless cruelty, and by a policy even more cruel and relentless. The wars of the Pale—the statute of Kilkenny—the plantation of Munster and Ulster, were the very indications of that settled policy. The resistance of the Irish was noble and continuous, but it was without plan, without unity, without any principal of concert, and it finally yielded to the warlike and politic genius of Lord Mountjoy.

THE COMMISSIONERS AUTHORIZED BY JAMES in July and August, 1609, "to enquire of diverse things contained in said commission and articles of instruction thereunto annexed," were Sir Arthur Chicester, Lord Deputy; Henry, Lord Archbishop of Armagh; George, Lord Bishop of Derry; Sir Humphry Winch, Chief Justice of the Common Pleas; Sir Thomas Ridgway, Treasurer at War; Sir Oliver St. John, Master of the Ordnance; Sir Oliver Lambert, Sir Garrett Moore, Privy Councillors; Sir John Davies, Attorney General; William Parsons, Surveyor General. A jury of twelve men were duly sworn, and without any unnecessary delay, found, on the several inquisitions, that the Earl of Tyrowen, the Earl of Tyrconnell, Sir Cahir O'Doherty and others "did enter into rebellion, and at the time of the said entering into rebellion were seized in their demesne, as of fee, of," etc. Quick upon the finding of these inquisitions, which handed over to the King the ancient and princely inheritances of the O'Neills and the O'Donnells, and the countries of the O'Cahans, the Maguires, the O'Doghertys, the O'Reillys and a score of other ancient families—or it may be submitted even before the formal finding. A project was submitted by the Privy Council in Ireland, to the King and Council in England, for the division and plantation of the escheated lands in six several counties

in Ulster, namely: Tyrowen, Coleraine (now Londonderry), Donegal, Fermanagh, Armagh and Cavan.

"Whereas," says a state paper of the day, "great scopes and extent of land in the several counties of Armagh, Tyrowen, Coleraine, Donegal, Fermanagh and Cavan, within the Province of Ulster, are escheated and come to our hands by the attainder of traitors and rebels, and by other just and lawful titles, we have heretofore caused several inquisitions to be taken and surveys to be made, which being transmitted to us, we considered with our Privy Council, attending our person, how much it would advance the welfare of that kingdom if the said land were planted with colonies of civil men, *and well affected in religion.*" The civil men were to be English, and principally Scotch—those well affected in religion were, of course, to be Protestants—the fulfilment of which conditions would lead to the extermination of the native races of Ireland, which was the manifest intention. In proof of which, the following conditions will amply prove:

"*Articles concerning the English and Scotch undertakers, who are to plant their portions with English and inland Scottish tenants.*

1. His majesty is pleased to grant estates in fee farm to them and their heirs.

2. They shall yearly yield unto his majesty, for every proportion of one thousand acres, five pounds six shillings and eight pence English, and so rateably for the greater proportions, which is after the rate of six shillings and eight pence for every three-score English acres. But none of the said undertakers shall pay any rent until the expiration of the first two years, except the natives of Ireland, who are not subject to the charge of transportation.

3. Every undertaker of so much land as shall amount to the greatest proportion of two thousand acres, or thereabouts, shall hold the same by Knight Service *in capite;* and every undertaker of so much land as shall amount to the middle proportion of fifteen hundred acres, or thereabouts, shall hold the same by Knight Service, as of the Castle of Dublin; and every undertaker of so much land as shall amount to the least proportion of a thousand

acres, or thereabouts, shall hold the same in Common Soccage; and there shall be no wardships upon the two first descents of that land.*

4. Every undertaker of the greatest proportion of two thousand acres shall within two years after the date of his letters patent, build thereupon a Castle with a strong court or bawn about it, and every Undertaker of the second or middle proportion of fifteen hundred acres shall, within the same time, build a stone or brick house thereupon, with a strong court or bawn about it, and every Undertaker of the least proportion of a thousand acres, shall within the same time, make thereupon a strong court or bawn at least, and all the said Undertakers shall desire their tenants to build houses for themselves and their families near the principal castle, house or bawn, for their mutual defense or strength. * * * * *

5. The said Undertakers, their heirs and assigns, shall have ready in their houses at all times a convenient store of armes, wherewith they may furnish a competent number of able men for their defense, which may be viewed and mustered every half year, according to the manner of England.

6. Every of the said Undertakers, English or Scotch, before the ensealing of his letters patent, shall take the oath of Supremacy * * * * and shall also conform themselves in religion according to his Majesty's laws.

7. The said Undertakers, their heirs and assigns, shall not alien or demise their portions, or any part thereof, to the *meer Irish*, or to such persons as will not take the oath, and to that end a proviso shall be inserted in their letters patent.

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*Knight Service was a military tenure. The Act of 12th, Charles II, c. 24, which gave the *coup de grace* to the feudal system, extinguished these monstrous rights of Knight Service, and converted all such tenures into free and common Soccage. Soccage was of two sorts, Free and Villein. In one the services are certain and honorable, in the other are certain but of a baser kind. Soccage was a Saxon relique of liberty. The tenant returned for his land fealty and a certain rent. The services that were base are plowing, carrying out dung, making hedges, and other mean but useful employments. Blackstone's Com. Vol. 2, p. 60.

8. Every Undertaker shall, within two years after the date of his letters patent, plant or place a competent number of English or inland Scottish tenants upon his portion, in such manner as the Commissioner shall prescribe.

9. Requires the residence of the Undertaker for five years from date of letters patent.

10. Stipulates conditions as to the aliening their portions during the five years, but after the said five years they shall be at liberty to alien *to all persons, except the meer Irish*, and such persons as will not take the oath, (meaning Catholics.)

11. Gives power to the Undertakers to erect manors and hold Courts Baron twice every year.

12. The said Undertakers shall not demise any part of their lands, at will only, but shall make certain estates for years, for life, in tail, or in fee simple.

13. Provides for certain fixed rents, and prohibits cuttings, cocheries, and other Irish exactions upon their tenants.

14. Exempts said Undertakers from paying any customs or imports on any commodities growing upon their lands.

The most remarkable of these orders and conditions are those which are aimed at what the insolence of English pride has always termed "meer Irishry." The Irish, in the above articles, are exceptions to the exemption from rent —on the ground that they being born to the soil, had no journey to make to take possession. Undertakers, those strange usurpers, are forbidden to demise to the "meer Irish," or to any tenant who will not take the oath of Supremacy, which was a practical exclusion of every Catholic. The King's tenants are allowed to alien, after five years' possession, to any party except a Catholic or the "meer Irish."

The plantation, though it did not fulfill its original idea—grand and abominable—of destroying an entire people, wrought some singular effects in the history of Ireland, and produced a strange influence on the fortunes of those kingly robbers by whom it was designed. In

that remarkable colony which the first Stuart planted in the broad estates of Irish princes, nobles and warriors, his wretched son and grandson encountered the most inveterate hostility. On the banks of a memorable river that ran through the old territories of Ultonia, the last of the Stuarts, expiated his sins against Liberty. The crimes of the father were visited with usurious interest on the head of the son.

The leading principle of the plantation, and the main idea of its designers was "the avoiding of the natives, and the planting only with British." Such a system was too vicious to endure. Extermination, which Spenser counseled, could alone have enabled the plantation to work well, by a total removal of the native owners of the lands, but, without death or banishment, entire exclusion was impossible; they mingled with the new population in a communion of hatred and ill will, and instead of a great nation, the fusion of many races, they have presented for centuries the appearance of rival factions restrained, and that only occasionally by law, from attempting mutual destruction. By incessant war, and by the intrigues of English policy, the entire people of Ireland had been reduced to the lowest scale of social life—their lands were ravaged, the fruits of the earth destroyed, the villages of the peasants burned, the peasantry themselves driven to the mountain fastnesses and the forests. The first object was to re-people the plains, to stud them with permanent residences, provided with all the necessities of civilized homes; to cluster together groups of habitation, where industrial association would in time produce commerce and create national wealth; and the provision given in the conditions for undertakers tended to procure this desired result. Though the directions with regard to castles and bawns, were not strictly complied with, yet villages and towns gradually arose in the escheated counties; strongly protected fortresses and mansions sprung up on every side; houses of worship—not, indeed of the prescribed ancient faith of the people, the old inheritance of Ulster, but of new and hungry religionists, of discordant creeds, and schools for the

education of youth, were seen in most parts of the North.

But all these fair promises—all these castles, churches, schools—all this busy hum of industry, this trade and manufacture, were of small avail. The exclusion of the natives planted a germ of destruction in the goodly enterprise. Their extermination would have been a matter much to have been desired by English statesmen and Scotch adventurers. But it is not so easy to exterminate a people from their native soil. A milder course was adopted; life was awarded on the conditions of ill-paid labor and oppressive rents. The natives became hewers of wood and drawers of water, where they had once owned the soil and reaped for themselves its abundant fruits. Hence two elements were placed in continual and angry opposition—ownership and usurpation, embittered by diversity of language, creed and race. The first fruits were visible in the affair of 1641, nor, though better prospects now appear, have the effects of the great error of this plantation altogether ceased. There was no true policy but this—to exterminate or to consolidate; neither was adopted, and the result was that the plantation proved to be an unsuccessful experiment of reformation without any one ennobling act to atone for its many grievous wrongs, oppressions and cruelties.

"THE SPIRIT OF RELIGIOUS PERSECUTION,"

says McGee, "was exhibited not only in the means taken to exterminate the peasantry, to destroy the northern chiefs, and to intimidate the Catholics of "The Pale" by abuse of law, but by many cruel executions. The prior of the famous retreat of Lough Dearg was one of the victims of this persecution; a priest of the name of O'Loughrane, who had accidentally sailed in the same ship with the Earls to France, was taken prisoner on his return, hanged and quartered. Conor O'Deveny, Bishop of Down and Connor, an octogenarian, suffered martyrdom with heroic constancy at Dublin, in 1611. Two years before, John, Lord of Brittas, was executed in like manner on a charge of having participated in the Catholic

demonstration which took place at Limerick on the accession of King James.

Very unexpectedly to the nation at large, after a lapse of twenty-seven years, during which no Parliament had been held, writs were issued for the attendance of both Houses, at Dublin, on the 18th of May, 1613. The work of confiscation and plantation had gone on for several years without any sanction from the legislature. With all the efforts which had been made to introduce civil men into the country well affected in religion, it was certain that the Catholics would return a large majority of the House of Commons, not only from the chief towns, but from the fifteen old and seventeen new counties, lately created. To counterbalance this majority, over forty boroughs, returning two members each, were created, by royal charter, in places thinly or not at all inhabited, or where towns were merely projected by the undertakers. At the elections, however, many "recusant lawyers" and other Catholic candidates were returned, so that when the day of meeting arrived one hundred and one Catholic representatives assembled at Dublin. The supporters of the government claimed one hundred and twenty-five votes, and six were absent, making the whole number 232. The Upper House consisted of fifty peers, of whom there were twenty-five Protestant Bishops. In a contest for the speakership, the House broke up in confusion, and the Lord Deputy finding the recusants resolute, prorogued the session. Both parties sent deputies to England to lay their complaints before the King. The Catholic spokesmen, Talbot and Luttrell, were received with a storm of reproaches, and the former committed to the Tower, and the latter to the Fleet Prison. They were shortly after released, and a compromise effected with the Castle party. "On the whole," says McGee, "both for the constitutional principles which they upheld, and the religious proscription which they resisted, the recusant minority in the Irish Parliament of James I, deserve to be held in honor." Ulster being already parceled out, and Munster undergoing a similar manipulation at the hands of the new Earl of Cork, there remained a fruit-

ful field for a new commission under Sir William Parsons, Surveyor-General, the midland counties and Connaught. Of these they made the most in the shortest possible space of time. A horde of clerkly spies were employed under the name of "Discoverers" to ransack old Irish tenures in the archives of Dublin and London, with such good success, that in a very short time 66,000 acres in Wicklow, and 385,000 in Leitrim, Longford, the Meaths, and Kings and Queens counties, "were found, by inquisition, to be vested in the Crown." The means employed by the commissioners, in some cases, to elicit such evidence as they required, were of the most revolting description. In the Wicklow case, courts-martial were held, before which unwilling witnesses were tried on the charge of treason, and several were actually put to death. Archer, one of the number, had his flesh burned with red-hot iron, and was placed on a gridiron over a charcoal fire, till he agreed to testify anything his torturers demanded from him.

When, in 1623, Pope Gregory XV, granted a dispensation for the marriage of Prince Charles to the Infanta of Spain, James solemnly swore to a private article of the marriage treaty, by which he bound himself to suspend the execution of the Penal Laws, to procure their repeal in Parliament, and to grant a toleration of Catholic worship in private houses. But the Spanish match was unexpectedly broken off, whereupon Charles married Henrietta, daughter of Henry IV, king of France.

THE PLANTATION OF JAMES I

was a blow aimed at the extermination of the natives as fully in intent as the murderous campaigns of Carew and Gray. It was resolved to improve upon former plantations. In the past efforts to colonize, the Irish had either been mixed with the English, that thereby they might acquire their habits of civility and industry, or else they were driven to the woods, which at the time, skirted the sides of the mountains and stretched along the banks of every river. The fertile plains were seized upon by the English settlers. But this did not work well. The Irish,

in the woods to which they had been driven, or in the sacred gloom of their forests, brooded over their wrongs and planned sure and fearful vengeance. They issued from their retreats, destroyed the settlements, burned the towns, waylaid the straggling parties, and covered the face of the country with fire and blood. The holds of Norman robbery were wrapped in flames; their flocks were driven from the open pastures to the mountains and the wood, their retainers were cut off in detail by ever watchful natives; and often above the noises of their revelry were heard the avenging war-cries of Tryconnell and Tyrowen.

It was requisite to the success of the new plantation, that such consequences as are described above, should be carefully guarded against. It would ill suit the grave yeoman, the thrifty trader, and the cautious burgher, who were to be transplanted from the fields and towns of Britain, to have such neighbors in the woods. It was therefore prudently resolved to fix in the plains and open places the natives, whom the clemency of power still permitted to enjoy part in the distribution of the escheated lands. This was a wise resolution whether it would be politic to civilize or necessary to slay them. They were assembled under the eyes and fortresses of the new proprietor, and from his square-built tower and his fortified bawn or courtyard, he who had despoiled might watch over and control them.

The Irish tillers of the soil were admitted, but too liberally, to become tenants of the English and Scotch farmers, because they offered higher rents for lands, and accepted smaller wages for labor. "The humane, and wise, and enlightened projects of the king and his counsellors were baffled by the want of co-operation on the part of the inferior agents of confiscation, and the completeness of the design was destroyed by the dangerous intrusion of the old natives."

The project contains a statistic account of the different counties, not, however, accurately setting down the number in acres in each, but only enumerating the escheated lands *available to the purposes of the planters*, and ex-

cluding unforfeited and church lands, and also excluding bogs, mountains, woods, lakes, and "other unprofitable scopes."

That the success of the plantation, this favorite project of a long line of sovereigns, was, beyond doubt, a matter of intense interest to the English court. It so occurred that the division of the plunder and the conditions on which men held their land were not pleasing to all. The Scotchman preferred the Irish tenant and the Irish laborer to his own countryman, who was just as clever and as wise as himself—the English Undertaker disliked the burthen of building a huge quadrangular castle with flanking towers and immense circumambient wall. These dislikes begat much disobedience of the Rules and Orders; the castles and bawns were not built as intended; the planted ground became thickly peopled by the natives who in the plains increased as rapidly as they had in the woods and on the mountain side; they were growing in the midst of their enemies a strange and alarming presence. It was a just vengeance of nature upon these despoilers thus to increase the number of the Irish, but a cause of great perplexity and alarm to the English court. Commissions and superintendents were appointed, inquiries were directed, and reports made; the inveterate evil increased, the whole great plan promised arrant failure; the fate of the Munster planters was remembered, and the doom of that great settlement was predicted for the Ulster plantation.

"Amongst the number of inquirers who visited Ulster," continues MacNevin, "to point out the evils and to specify remedies, was Nicholas Pynnar, and fortunately for the history of the Plantation and for a better comprehension of the habits and social arrangements of the day, his report has fully survived for our great edification. He was preceded by others who have left us no memorials or valueless ones of their labors, and it is from him that we are principally to learn the prospects of the Plantation at a period when it had a fair trial. He prosecuted his enquiry during four months at the latter end of 1618 and beginning of 1619. Not so garrulous as Sir John

Davies, he has told us nothing of the manner in which he executed his "survey." Neither is the survey itself very full or explanatory, but contains notices of men and things which are pleasurably quaint, and his brief sketches of the dwellings and habits of those who occupied the planted ground, are illustrative and informing. I have arranged this survey in an intelligible form, and have attached notes containing much of what Pynnar saw during his inquiry. I have from the Inquisition Book and the Patent Rolls of James and Charles, added the names of the attainted parties and the original patentees to his list of the occupiers in 1619, so that in one view the reader is presented with the history of the Plantation and the Order established in Ulster by this remarkable revolution. In many instances these records gave but meagre information. If we had a government in Ireland, all these public documents would be arranged, edited and illustrated with notes. But they are not agreeable learning for Englishmen. As for Pynnar he never mentions any of the former possessors; he is as silent on the subject as if an O'Neill had never caroused in the castle of Dungannon, or an O'Donnell fought on the plains of Donegal.

The changes of proprietorship are very numerous, the original patentees having in a majority of instances either parted with their interest entirely, or let to tenants with very long leases. No doubt these patentees—soldiers of fortune, captains, cutters and stabbers, dowagers and jointresses and demireps of the court—merely grasped the lands of Ulster to make a good traffic by their sale; hence we shall find in the following list repeated transference of the denominations from one to another, and a varying proprietorship which must have been very fatal to the quick success of the Plantation. There is another set of circumstances on which I regret not to have been able to throw any light. There are some Irish secondary chiefs who were attainted, but on submission restored, and others who got back their own lands for a valuable consideration of base treachery towards their fellows; and I am not able, from the materials I had, to discriminate between these with sufficient accuracy. The historic interest of the Planta-

tion ceases at the time of Pynnar's survey; a new order of things was then established, and a new proprietary; new relations sprung up which produced their effect in the subsequent war of 1641, and continued even to the present day.

The following table, which yet I must acknowledge is still very imperfect, is compiled from Pynnar's survey, the book of Inquisitions in the reigns of James I and Charles I, from the Patent Rolls in the same reigns, compiled in barbarous Latin and entirely unindexed—and from other obscure and most unattractive sources":

THE PLANTATION OF ULSTER.

Being a Survey in the years 1618 and 1619 of the Lands and Settlements on the Lands escheated.

I.—COUNTY CAVAN—O'REILLY'S COUNTRY.

(Formerly called BREFNI O'REILLY.)

1.—The Precinct of Clanchie, allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.	Acres.	Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
1 Castle Aubignie 2 Keneth 3 Cachel	3,000	Philip O'Reilley's lands escheated under Elizabeth, but were re-granted in succession to his sons	1 2 Lord Aubignie 3	1 2 Sir Jas. Hamilton 3
4 Kilclogan	1,000	and brothers who all	4 John Hamilton	4 John Hamilton
5 Dromuck	1,000	fell in arms for their		5 William Hamilton
6 Tanregie	1,000	country. The last		6 William Bealle
Total,	6,000	attaint took place in James's reign, and the lands went as herein set down in the Plantation.		

2.—The Precinct of Castlerachan or Castlerahan, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.	Acres.	Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
1 Mullagh	1,000	The O'Reillys.	1 Sir William Taaffe	1 Sir Thomas Ashe
2 Carvyn	1,000		2 Sir Edmund Phetilace	2
3 Murmode	500		3 Lieutenant Garth	
4 Loughrammar,	1,000		4 Captain Ridgeway	4 Captain Culme
5 Muckon	400			5 Sir John Elliot, knt
6 ——	900		6 Shane Mac Philip O'Reilly.	6 Shane Mac Philip O'Reilly
Total,	4,800			

3.—The Precinct of Tallaghgarvy, allotted to Scotch Servitors.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Tullavin	1,500		1 Capt H. Culme	1 Captain Hugh Culme and Archibald Moore, Esq.
2 Drumsheel	750		2 Sir Thomas Ashe	2 Sir Thomas Ashe and John Ashe
3 Itterryoutra	1,000		3 Mulmorie Mac P. O'Reilly	3 Mulmorie Mac P. O'Reilly
4 Liscannor	1,000	The O'Reillys.	4 Captain Reilly	4 Captain Reilly
5 ———	3,000		5 Mulmorie Mac P. O'Reilly	5 Mulmorie Mac P. O'Reilly
6 Itterrery	2,000		6 Capt. R. Tyrrell	6 Capt. Richard Tyrrell and William Tyrrell
7 Liscurcron	3,000		7 Maurice Mac Telligh	7 Maurice Mac Telligh
Total,	12,250			

4.—The Precinct of Loghtee, allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Aghieduff	1,500			1 John Taylor
2 Dromhill	2,000		2 Sir R. Waldron, knight	2 Thomas Waldron
3 Dromein			3	
4 Dromany	2,000		4 John Fisbe	
5 Monaghan	1,500			5 Sir Hugh Warrall, knight. Pynaar says it is now in Mr. Adwick's hands, though Sir Hugh hath it; but Pynaar is very dull.
		The O'Reillys.		
6 Clonose	2,000			6 Sir Stephen Butler, knt.
For the town of Belturbet there were allotted	384			
7 Lisreagh	2,000		7 Reinald Horne	7. Sir Geo. Manneryngе, knt.
8. Tonagh	1,500		8 William Snow	8 Peter Ameas
Total,	12,884			

5.—The Precinct of Clonemahown, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Origin'l Patentees.	Parties in possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Carig	2,000		1 Lord Lambert	1 Lord Lambert.
2 Tullacullen	1,000		2 Capt. Lyons; Jos. Jones	2 Ditto.
3	1,000	The O'Reillys.	3 Lient. Atkinson; Lient. Russell	3 Archibald Moore
4	500		4 Capt. Fleming	4 Captain Fleming
5 Commet	2,000		5 Mul Mac Hugh O'Reilly	5 Mul. Mac Hugh O'Reilly.
6 Wateragh	300		6 Philip Mac Tilrogh	6 Philip Mac Tirlogh
Total,	6,800			

6.—The Precinct of Tullaghconcho allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Carotobber } 2 Clontine }	2,000	The O'Reillys.	1 } Sir Alexander 2 } Hamilton	1 } Jane, widow to 2 } Claude Hamilton
3 Clomy	1,000		3 Sir Claude Hamilton	3 The aforesaid Jane Claude's widow
4 Drumhedagh } 5 Kelagh }	2,000		4 } Alexander and 5 } John Aughmootie	4 } Sir James Craig, 5 } knight.
6 Carrowndownan	1,000		6 John Browne	6 Archibald Acheson
Total,	6,000			

7.—The Precinct of Tallaghehagh, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Ballyconnell	1,500	The O'Reillys.	1 Captain Culme	1 Captain Culme and Walter Talbot
2	2,000		2 Sir R. Grimes	2 Sir Richard and Sir Geo. Grimes, knights
3 Larga	1,000		3 William Parsons	3 William Parsons
4	1,000		4 One Magnaran "a native"	4 Magnaran
Total,	5,500			

THE COUNTY OF FERMANAGH—MAC GUIRE'S COUNTRY.

1.—The Precinct of Knockninny, allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession in 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Carowshee, or Belford, i. e., this denomination and some others, "In a remote place and out of all good way."	3,000	Hugo Mac Guire, son of Coconnaught Mac Guire, was the Lord of Fermanagh, and was killed in rebellion against Elizabeth. His estates form the subject of these grants.	1 Lord Burleigh	1 Sir James Belford, knight.
2 Aghalane	1,000	The secondary chiefs were the Mac Gillafinnans, Mac Manuses, and the O'Flanagans, etc.	2 Lady Kinkell	2 Mr Adwick
3 Dristernan	1,000		3 James Traile	3 Mr Adwick
4 Kilspenan	1,500		4 Lord Mountwhanny	4 Sir Stephen Butler, knight
5 Leytrim	1,500		5 Sir John Whisher	5 Ditto
6 Derryanye	1,000		6 George Smelhome	6 Ditto
Total,	9,000			

2.—The Precinct of Clancally or Clankellie, allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Latgar	1,000		1 John Sedborrow	1 John Sedborrow
2 Lisrisk	1,000		2 Thomas Flowerdew	2 Thomas Flowerdew
3 Clancarne	1,000		3 Robert Boges, of Braham, in Brancham, County of Suffolk	3 Edward Hatton
4 Ardmagh	1,000	The Mac Guires.	4 Thomas Plomstead	4 Sir Hugh Worrall, knight
5 Gutgoonan	1,000		5 Robert Calvert	5 George Ridgeway
	5,000			

3.—The Precinct of Clinawley, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Lisgoweley	1,000		1 Sir John Davies	1 Sir John Davies
2 Gurtin	500	The Mac Guires.	2 Captain Harrison	2 Mrs. Harrison widow of Captain Harrison
3 Moycrane	300		3 Peter Moystion	3 Peter Moystion
Total,	2,300			

4.—Precinct of Lurge and Coolemackernan, allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Drumynshin	1,000		1 Thomas Barton	2 Sir Gerard Lowther, knt.
2 Necarne	1,000		2 Harrington Sutton	
3 Tullana	1,000		3 John Archdale, Esq.	3 John Archdale, Esq.
4 Roseguire	1,000		4 Thomas Flowerdew	4 Thomas Flowerdew
5 Dowrosse	1,000	The Mac Guires.	5 Henry Hunings	5 Edw. Sibthorp and Henry Flowers, Esqs.
6 Edernagh	1,500		6 Thomas Blennerhassett	6 Thomas Blennerhassett
7 Talmackein	1,000		7 John Thurston	7 Sir E. & T. Blennerhassett
8 Bannaghmore	1,500		8 Sir Edw. Blennerhassett	8 Francis, son to Sir Edward Blennerhassett
Total,	9,000			

5.—Precinct of Coole, and Terkennada, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Cornegrade	1,000		1 Rodolphus Gore	1 Sir William Cole
2 Newporton	1,500		2 Sir Henry Folliott, knight, afterwards Lord Folliott	2 Sir Henry Folliott, knight
3 Carick	1,000		2 Rodolphus Gore	3 Captain Paul Gore
4 Coole	1,000	The Mac Guires.	4 Captain R. Atkinson	4. Captain Roger Atkinson
5 Clabby	1,500		5 Com. Mac Shane O'Neill. (Patent Roll, 23 Chas. I.)	5 Con Mac Shane O'Neill
6 Tempodessell	2,000		6 Brian Maguire	6 Brian Maguire
	8,000			

6.—The Precinct of Macheroboy, allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Dromskeagh	1,000		1 Jeremy Lyndsey	1 Sir William Cole
2 Derrinefogher	1,500		2 Sir Robert Hamilton	2 Malcolme Hamilton
3 Drumagh	1,000	The Mac Guires.	3 James Gill	3 John Archdale
4 Dromcose	1,000		4 Alexander Humes	4 George Humes
5 Moyglasse	1,500		5 Willliam Fuller	5 Sir John Humes
6 Drumcro	1,000			6 John Dunbar, Esq.
7 Carrynroe	2,000			7 Sir John Humes
	9,000			

THE COUNTY OF DONEGAL, OR TYRCONNELL.

1.—The Precincts of Boilagh and Banagh, allotted to Scottish Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 The Rosses	2,000		1 Lady Brombe	1 Captain Thomas Dutton
2 Cargie	1,000		2 Sir Patrick McKay	2 John Murray
3 Boilagh Outra	1,000		3 Patrick Vaux	3 Ditto
4 Duneonnally	1,500	The County of Donegal belonged to the noble house of O'Donnell. The secondary chiefs were O'Dogherty, Mac Sweeney Doe, Mac Sweeney Fanaid, O'Gallagher, and O'Clery.	4 William Stewart	4 John Murray, and under him, Js. Toodie and others, for years.
5 Kilkeran	1,000		5 Alexander Dunbar	5 John Murray, and under him to Richard Cogwell, for years
6 Ballagheitra	1.000		6 Lady Broughton. In the patent roll this is given to George Murray de Broughton.	6 John Murray
7 Moynagan	1,000			87 Alexander Cunningham, under John Murray
8 Mullaghavegh	1,000			James McCullagh
	9,500			

2.—Precinct of Portlough allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Dunboy	1,000		1 John Cunningham	1 John Cunnigham, gent
2 Moyegh	1,000			2 James Cunningham, gent
3 Decastrose and Portlough	2,000		3 Sir James Cunningham	3 Sir James Cunningham
4 Dromagh, alias Cooleniactreene	1,000	The O'Donnells, O'Dogherties, etc.	4 "Sir James Cunningham must answer for this"	4 Cuthbert Cunningham
5 Coolelaghie	1,000		5 Wm. Stewart	5 Wm. Stewart, Laird of Dundnff
6 Ballyneagh	1,000		6 A. M'Awley	6 Alexander M'Awley, alias Stewart
7 Corgagh	1,000		7 The Laird of Lusse	7 The Laird of Lusse
8 Cashell, Ketin and Litter-gul	3,000		8 Sir J. Stewart	8 Sir John Stewart, knight
9 Lismolmogan	1,000		9 Ditto	9 Sir John Stewart, aforesaid
Total,	12,000			

3.—The Precinct of Liffer, allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Shramickler	1,500			1 Peter Benson
2 Aghagalla	2,000			2 William Wilson, Esq.
3 Corlackin	2,000		3 Sir Thomas Cornwall	3 Thomas Davis, holds of his brother Robert
4 Killeneguerdon	1,000			4 Captain Mansfield
5 Acarine	1,500	The O'Donnells.	5 Captain Russell	5 Sir John Kingsmill, knight
6 Tonafecies	2,000		6 Sir Robert Remington	6 Sir Ralph Bingley
7 Drummore and Lurga	2,000		7 Sir Maurice Bartley	7 Ditto
8 Lismongan	1,500		8 Sir T. Coach	8 Sir Thomas Coach, knight
9 Monaster	1,500		9 Sir William Barns	9 Sir John Kingsmill and Mr. Wilson
Total,	15,000			

4.—The Precinct of Kilmacrenan, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Letterkenny	1,000		1 Captain Craiford	1 Sir George Marbruic
2 Balamally	1,000		2 Sir J. Kingsmill	2 Sir John Kingsmill
3 Gortavaghie	1,000		3 Sir W. Stewart	3 Sir William Stewart
4 Edonearne	1,000		Sir B. Brooke	4 Sir Basil Brooke
5 Radennell	1,000		5 Sir T. Chichester	5 Sir Thomas Chichester
6 Carnegill	1,000		6 Sir John Vaughan	6 John Wray, Esq.
7 Moyris	1,000			7 Arthur Terrle
8 Ballenas	1,000			8 Captain Henry Harte
9 Ramalton	1.000		9 Sir Richard Hansard	9 Sir William Stewart
10 "	1,000			10 Sir John Vaughan
11 "	1,000			11 Captain Paul Gore
12 Facker	172	The O'Donnells.	12 Lieutenant Perkins	12 Lieutenant Perkins
13 Loughnemuck	400		13 Lieutenant Ellis	13 Nathaniel Rowley
14 Cranrasse	523		14 Lieutenant Browne	14 Ditto
15 Caroreagh	103		15 } Lieutenant	15 William Lynn
16 Luarguarack	240		16 } Gale	16 Ditto
17 Castledoe	500		17 Sir Richard Bingley	17 Captain Sandford
18 Mountmellon	2,000		18 Sir Mulmorle Mac Swyne	18 Sir Mulmorie Mac Swyne
19 Leanagh and Corragh	2,000		19 Machoyne Baunagh	19 Machoyne Baunagh
20 Carogbleagh and Clomas	2,000		20 Tirlogh Roe O'Boyle	20 Tirlogh Roe O'Boyle
21 Roindoberg and Carooc-omony	2,000		21 Donnell Mac Swyne Farne	21 Donnell Mac Swyne Farne
22 Bellycaunny and Ragh	896		22 Walter Mac Loughlin Mac Swyne	22 Walter Mac Loughlin Mac Swyne
Total,	21,844			

COUNTY OF TYROWEN—O NEILL'S COUNTRY.

1.—The Precinct of Strabane, allotted to Scottish Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Strabane	1,000		1 Earl of Abercorne	1 The Earl of Abercorne
2 Donnalonge	2,000	The greatest portion of Tyrowen belonged to the reigning family of O'Neill, whose chieftain was entitled to the usual duties and payments due to the leader of the clan from the whole of the population. The secondary chiefs were the Mac Cawells, the O'Hagans, the O'Quins, the O'Luneys and the O'Donnellys.	2 Ditto	2 The aforesaid Earl
3 Shean	1,500		3 Sir Thomas Boyd	3 The aforesaid Earl
4 Largie, alias Cloghogenal	1,500		4 Sir G. Hamilton	4 Sir George Hamilton
5 Derriewoone	1,000		5 Ditto	5 Sir George Hamilton
6 Eden and Killiny	2,000		6 Sir William Stewart	6 Sir George Hamilton
7 Terremurrearteth alias Mounterlony	1,500		7 James Haig	7 Sir George aforesaid, and Sir William Stewart
8 Newton and Lislappe	2,000		8 James Chapman	8 Sir Robert Newcomen
9 Ballymaghnegh	1,000			9 Sir John Drummond
Total,	13.500			

2.—The Precinct of the Omy, allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.	Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession in 1619.
ACRES.			
1 Faugh and Rarone 3,000		1 Earl of Castlehaven	1 The Countess' jointure
2 Brede 2,000		2 Ditto	2 Earl Castlehaven
3 Fentonagh 2,000		3 Ditto	3 Ditto
4 Edergoole and Carneurachan 2,000	The O'Neills.	4 Ditto	4 Ditto
5 Gavelagh and Clonaghmore, alias Castle Dirge and Castle Curlew 2,000		5 Sir John Davies, knt.	5 Sir John Davies, knt.
Total, 11,000			

3.—The Precinct of Clogher, allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.	Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
ACRES.			
1 Portclare and Ballykillgirie 2,000		1 Lord Ridgeway	1 Lord Ridgeway
2 Thomas Court 1,000		2 George Ridgeway	2 George Ridgeway, gent.
3 Moyener and Ballygallin 1,000		3 William Turvin	3 Sir Gerrard Lowther, knt.
4 Loughmaguire 1,500	The O'Neills.	4 Captain Edney	4 Lord Burleigh
5 Fentonagh 2,000		5 Sir Francis Willoughby	5 John Leigh, Esq.
6 Ballenecole and Ballerennally 2,000		6 Edward Kinsgmill	6 Sir William Stewart, knt.
7 Derribard 2,000		7 Sir Anthony Cope	7 Sir William Cope
8 Balleneclogh 1,000			8 William Parsons, Esq.
Total, 12,500			

4.—Precinct of Mountjoy, allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.	Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
ACRES.			
1 O'Carraghan 1,800			1 Sir Robert Heyburne
2 Revelinoutra and Eightra 3,500			2 Lord Uchiltree
3 Tullylegan 1,500			3 Captain Saunderson
4 Tullaoge 1,000	The O'Neills.	4 Robert Lindsey	4 Mrs. Lyndsey, widow of Robert
5 Creighballe 1,000		5 Richard Lindsey	5 Alexander Richardson
6 Ballenekenan 1,000		6 Robert Stewart	6 Andrew Stewart, son of Lord Uchiltree
7 Gortevill 1,000			7 David Kennedy
Total, 10,800			

5.—The Precinct of Dungannon, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Dungannon	1,140	The O'Neills and the O'Donnellys. The latter were a distinguished branch of the Kinel-Owen or northern Hy-Niall race of which the O'Neills were the chiefs, and it was by one of them that the celebrated Shane, or John O'Neill, surnamed the Proud, and also called Donghailach, or the Donnellian, was fostered.	1 Lord Chichester, the Lord Deputy	1 Lord Chichester, the Lord Deputy
2 For Dungannon Town	500		2 Lord Ridgeway	2 Lord Ridgeway
3 Large	2,000		3 Sir Toby Caulfield	3 Sir Toby Caulfield
4 Ballydonnelly	1,000		4 Sir Francis Roe	4 Sir Francis Roe
5 Manor Roe	1,000		5 William Parsons	5 William Parsons
6 Alte Besert	1,000		6 Sir Francis Ansley	6 Sir Francis Ansley
7 Clanagrie	480		7 Marshall Wingfield	7 Marshal Wingfield
8 Benburb	2,000 4,000		8 Tirlough O'Neill	8 Tirlough O'Neill
Total,	13,120			

COUNTY OF ARMAGH.

1.—The Precinct of O'Neilan allotted to English Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Doughcouran	1,500	Armagh belonged to the O'Neills of the Fewes, the Clanbreasal O'Neills, and the O'Hanlons.	1 William Brownlow	1 William Brownlow
2 Ballenemony	1,000		2 Ditto	2 Ditto
3 Kernan	1,000		3 Sir Oliver St. John	3 Sir Oliver St. John
4 Ballnevoran	2,000		4 William Powell	4 Mr. Obbyns
5 Derrycravy, 6 Dromully,	3,000		5, 6 Lord Say	5, 6 Mr. Copo
7 Semore,	1,000		7 Richard Roulstone	7 Richard Roulstone
8 Aghivillan and Brochus	2,000		8 John Heron	8 John Heron
9 Kannagoolan	1,500		9 William Stanbowe	9 William Stanbowe
10 Mullalellish and Leggacory	2,000		10 Francis Sachev-erill	10 Francis Sachev-erill
11 Mullbrane	1,500		11 John Dillon	11 John Dillon
Total,	16,5000			

2.—The Precinct of the Fewes, allotted to Scotch Undertakers.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Coolemalish	1,000	The O'Neills, etc.	1 Henry Acheson	1 Henry Acheson
2 Magharlentrim,	1,000		2 James Craig	2 John Hamilton, Esq.
3 Kilruddan	1,000		3 William Lawders	3 Ditto
4 Edenagh	500		4 John Hamilton	4 Ditto
5 Clancarny	2,000		5 Sir James Dowglass	5 Archibald Acheson
Total,	5,500			

3.—The Precinct of Orior, allotted to Servitors and Natives.

Denominations.		Attainted Proprietors.	Original Patentees.	Parties in Possession 1619.
	ACRES.			
1 Cornechino	500		1 Sir John Davies, knt.	1 Sir John Davies, knight
2 Ballemoore	1,500		2 Sir Oliver St. John	2 Sir Oliver St. John
3 Ballemonehan	1,000		3 Lord Moire	3 Lord Moire
4 Claire	2,000	The O'Neills, etc.	4 Henry Bourchier	4 Henry Bourchier, afterwards Earl of Bath
5	1,000		5 Capt. Anthony Smith	5 Captain Anthony Smith
6 Curiator	200		6 Lieutenant Poyns	6 Lieutenant Poyns
7 Camlogh	1,000		7 Henry M'Shane O'Neill	7 Sir Toby Caulfield
Total,	7,200			

The policy inaugurated by

JAMES WAS CONTINUED UNDER CHARLES I.

Wentworth, the Irish Lord Lieutenant, continued the commission as to defective titles in Connaught. Charles, not receiving grants from the English parliament, hit upon this happy plan of fleecing the Irish. Little resistance was encountered. Sir Lucas Dillon, the ancestor of the present Viscount Dillon, who has recently acted with such savage cruelty towards his tenantry in Mayo, was foreman of the jury or commission, and was commended by Wentworth for his judicious findings, and amply rewarded out of the confiscated lands. Little resistance was made until Galway was reached, and then the honest Wentworth became indignantly virtuous, but graver matters demanded his attention about this time. The parliament was in

REVOLT AGAINST CHARLES; AND THE SCOTCH COVENANTERS

came to his assistance, much to the dismay of Charles. Now surely was a splendid opportunity for the Irish chiefs and people, and they determined to avail themselves of it. Communications were established between the exiled Irish officers. A fund was contributed by them from their scanty pay, and envoys were sent to sound the confederates in Ireland. Roger O'More of Leix, an Irish gentleman, seems to have been the leading spirit at home,

while John, son of Hugh O'Neill, and titular Earl of Tyrone, was the acknowledged leader of the Irish in Europe. On the latter's death he was succeeded by Col. Owen (Roe) O'Neill, an officer of the Spanish army. The principal abettors of O'More in Ireland were Maguire, Lord of Fermanagh; Heber McMahon, Vicar of Clogher; Sir Phelim O'Neill, Sir Connor Magennis and Hugh Oge McMahon.

The time of the rising was fixed for the 23d of October, 1641, and the plan of campaign agreed upon was to seize on all fortresses within reach of the friends of the confederation; also the castle of Dublin, which at that time contained arms for 12,000 men. "All the details of the project," says McGee, "were carried into effect, except the seizure of Dublin Castle, the most difficult, as it would have been the most decisive blow to strike." The government of England was completely baffled "In one night," says A. M. Sullivan; "the people swept out of sight, if not from existence, every vestige of English rule throughout three provinces. The forts of Charlemont and Mountjoy, and the town of Dungannon were seized on the night of the 22nd by Phelim O'Neill, or his lieutenants. On the next day, Sir Connor Magennis took Newry; the McMahons possessed the towns of Carrick-ma-cross and Castle Blayney; the O'Hanlons, Tanderagee, while Roger Maguire and Philip O'Reilly raised Cavan and Fermanagh." Charles Gavan Duffy, in the most powerful ballad which he has written, thus expresses the feelings of the Irish nation after the triumph of 1641:

"Joy! joy! the day has come at last, the day of hope and pride,
And see! our crackling bonfires light old Bann's rejoicing tide,
And gladsome bell and bugle, from Newry's captured towers;
Hark! how they tell the Saxon swine the land is ours—is OURS.

"Glory to God, my eyes have seen the ransomed fields of Down,
My ears have drunk that cry, stout Phelim hath his own.
Oh! may they see and hear no more; oh! may they rot to clay
When they forget the triumph in the conquest of to-day.

"Now, now, we'll teach the shameless Scot to purge his thievish maw;

Now, now, the courts must fall to prey for justice is the law;
Now, shall the undertaker square for once his loose accounts,
We'll strike, brave boys, a fair result from all his false amounts.

"Come, trample down their robber rule, and smite their venal spawn·
Their foreign laws, their foreign church, their ermine and their lawn,
With all the specious fry of foreign fraud that robbed us of our own,
And plant our ancient standard once again beside our lineal throne."

The failure to seize Dublin Castle was owing to the traitorous conduct of one Conolly, the only Irish traitor of 1641, and the ancestor of the Conolly's of Donegal. Col. McMahon, to whom the task of seizing the castle was entrusted, was captured in his lodgings the night of the "rising," as was Lord Maguire, but O'More, and Plunkett and the other confederates escaped.

The charges of cruelty brought against the Irish of that period, bears a striking resemblance to the Irish outrages manufactured by the English press at the present time. There is no foundation for the accusations. The reply of Sir Connor Magennis to the English officers at Down indicates pretty thoroughly the spirit of the Irish. "*We are*" he said "*fighting for our lives and liberties. We desire no blood to be shed; but if you mean to shed our blood, be sure that we are as ready as you for that purpose.*" The facts are that the English soldiery practiced all kinds of barbarities upon the native Irish whom they made prisoners, and being unable to hold their own in, or at last to penetrate into Ulster, Munster, or Connaught, they wreaked vengeance on the Anglo-Catholics of the Pale. The noblemen and gentry protested to no purpose; their loyalty was unquestioned, but it probably arose from cowardice. The revolt was hitherto confined to the Celtic portion of the people. The Saxons of the Pale had no more sympathy with Celtic Catholics than the English Catholics of the present day have with the Irish Catholics. Duffy, from whom we have already quoted, shows how little the Irish trusted the Barnwells, the Trimlestons, and the other loyal gentlemen of the Pale.

"Let Silken Howth and savage
Slave still kiss the tyrant's rod,
And Pale Dunsany still prefer
His master to his God."

"Natheless their creed they hate us still," but events made the gentlemen of the Pale unite with the Irish. The puritan soldiery not satisfied with butchering the peasantry and sacking their houses, occasionally extended their courteous attentions to the nobility and gentry. The gentlemen who preferred and have always "preferred their master to their God" took alarm; a meeting was called in some portion of the county Meath. Most of the Catholic noblemen of the Pale attended, and invitations were secretly sent by the bolder spirits to the insurgent leaders. O'Reilly, McMahon, Byrne and Fox attended, mutual explanations were made, and an alliance formed. The Catholic Bishops met at Kells in March, 1642. As a result of both meetings a general assembly of "the lords spiritual and temporal and the gentry of their party" was convoked at Kilkenny, in October, 1643. Eleven Bishops and fourteen lay lords represented the Irish peerage; two hundred and twenty-six commoners, the large majority of the constituencies." Lord Mountgarret presided, and a supreme council of six members from each province was appointed to act as a provisional government. This council included the Bishops of Armagh, Tuam, Clonfert, Dublin and Down, and the lords Mountgarret, Roche, Gormanstown, and Mayo, and fifteen of the most eminent commoners.

This body became the ruling power of Ireland and was most loyally obeyed by the people. "It undertook," says Mr. Sullivan, "all the functions properly appertaining to its high office; coined money at a national mint; appointed judges; sent ambassadors abroad, and commissioned officers to the national army—amongst the latter being Owen Roe O'Neill. The Anglo-Irish faction in the confederation was too strong, and no sooner did the king express his desire to come to terms," than all their former loyalty returned. Indeed, as we have said before, it was not through patriotism, but cowardice, they ever

united with the Irish. Dissensions soon sprang up, the peace-at-any-price party wanted everything their own way, the Irish properly refused to unite in so slavish a policy, and determined to fight in the "open field, fairly, for land and life." The Anglo-Irish lords entered into negotiations with Ormonde, the Lord Lieutenant, only to be betrayed by that astute nobleman. A truce was agreed upon, but not observed by the English, for "Black Morrough" O'Brien and Scotch Monroe continued their ravages as if there were no truce.

Aid soon came to the Irish in the shape of money, arms, and munitions of war—"wine"—from the royal Pope. The papal nuncio, John Baptist Rinnucini came in person and brought $36,000, no inconsiderable sum in those days. Luke Wadding forwarded 2,000 muskets, 2,000 cartouche belts, 4,000 swords, 2,000 pikeheads, 400 brace pistols, 20,000 pounds of powder, with match, shot, and other stores. The nuncio, unlike some of latter date, took sides with the national party, repudiated all compromise with the king, but the slavish party were in a majority and concluded peace with Ormond. The Irish party took the field under Owen Roe O'Neill. Monroe had been marauding and massacreing in Ulster. O'Neill marched to meet him at Benburb, where the English and Scotch forces were utterly routed on the 5th of June, 1646. This victory gave great joy to the Irish. They felt that in Owen Roe they had a leader who was equal in strategy, and superior in prowess to any of the English generals. The Anglo-Irish general Preston defected to the English and united his forces with Inchiquin "Black Morrough." The war from then until

THE ADVENT OF CROMWELL

was desultory and carried on chiefly on the Guerilla plan. The most infamous cruelties were practiced on the Irish who fell into the hands of Inchiquin, at one place twenty priests were dragged from under the altar by the soldiers and massacred in cold blood—yet such was the party with whom the sleek, slavish Anglo-Catholic gentry—the ancestors of the "base, brutal, and bloody" Whigs, as

O'Connell called them, of latter times—entered into an unholy alliance. Verily the people of Ireland have learned a lesson or two, when they regard the descendants of these men with suspicion. Let us hope the feeling will thrive and grow.

While these things were transpiring in Ireland,

CHARLES FLED FROM ENGLAND,

but trusting to the loyalty of his Scotch subjects was betrayed and executed. Cromwell soon quelled all opposition in England. He then turned his attention to Ireland, where, in the language of Mr. Froude, he saw need for a sterner and firmer policy.

No need to enter into the sickening details of Cromwell's campaigns in Ireland. The untimely death of Owen Roe O'Neill left the Irish people without a leader, the treachery of the Anglo-Irish party left them without munitions of war. Cromwell had little to contend with. Massacres, butcheries, burnings, hangings and the most loathsome and savage cruelties became the order of the day. The stories of Drogheda and Wexford have often been told. "To hell or Connaught," is an expression graven in the memory of every Irishman. The expatriation of the Irish followers, soldiery and gentry to Europe, the banishment of women and children to starve and die and rot in the West Indies; Sir William Petty says that six thousand were thus banished, but adds that the Irish put the number as high as 100,000. The Committee of Council voted one thousand *girls* and as many *youths* to be taken up for the purpose" of making them English and Christian in the West Indies. This pious proceeding was carried out at the request of Cromwell. As a matter of course, the estates of the Irish gentry and people were confiscated and given to Cromwell's troopers. The most brutal laws were enacted to put down the Catholic religion. "The Parliamentary Commissioners in Dublin published a proclamation by which, and other edicts, any Catholic priest found in Ireland after twenty days, was guilty of High Treason, and liable to be hanged, drawn and quartered; any person harboring such clergyman was liable to the penalty of death and loss of goods and

chattels, and any person knowing the place of concealment of a priest and not disclosing it to the authorities, might be publicly whipped, and further punished with amputation of the ears.

"Any person absent from the parish church (protestant) on a Sunday was liable to a fine of thirty pence; magistrates might take away the children of Catholics and send them to England for education, and might tender

THE OATH OF SUPREMACY.

"I, A B, do reject and abjure the supremacy of the Roman Pontiff, and assert that he has no jurisdiction over the Catholic church in general, or myself in particular. I abjure the doctrine of transubstantiation, purgatory, and the worship of the crucifix, or other images. I abjure, moreover, the doctrine which teaches that salvation is to be procured by good works. This I swear without any gloss, equivocation, or mental reservation, so help me God."

"To all persons at the age of 21 years, who, on refusal, were liable to imprisonment during pleasure, and the forfeiture of two-thirds of their real and personal estates." "The same price of five pounds," continues Mr. Haverty, "was set on the head of a priest, and on that of a wolf, and the production of either head was a sufficient claim to the reward." "At an office or bureau," says Mr. A. M. Sullivan, "appointed by the government for the purpose, a lottery was held, whereat farms, houses, and estates from which the owners had been driven, were being 'drawn' by or on behalf of the soldiers and officers of the army, and the 'adventurers'—*i. e.*, petty shopkeepers in London, and others who had lent money for the war on the Irish."

This was the firm rule, the stern government, and these the measures which have so won the admiration of James Anthony Froude.

There is little to be said in reference to the history of Ireland during the reign of Charles II. Many of the exiled Irish aided that monarch in obtaining the throne of his father, but the Stuarts were never remarkable for

gratitude, and Ireland received not the slightest return for the services of her children. The Anglo-Irish expected much from the new king. They were totally undeceived. Whether Stuart or Tudor, Plantagenet or Hanoverian, Protestant or Catholic, occupied the throne of England was all the same to Ireland. She was scourged and robbed, her people libelled, her aspirations scoffed at, her feelings mocked. Thank God the Irish people are "disloyal to the heart's core." With the exception of a few fawning sycophants, they hate and detest England and its government; they are "Irishmen to the backbone and spinal marrow."

The settlement of the soldiery on the lands of Ireland by the Parliament after the Cromwellian war, was a scheme of vaster proportions and more lasting effects than any preceding attempt which had been made by the English to utterly extirpate the native population.

"In one year and a half," says Spenser, in his view of the state of Ireland, "they were brought to such wretchedness as any stony heart would have rued the sight of. Out of every corner of the woods and glynns they came forth on their hands, for their legs could not bear them. They looked like anatomies of death, and spoke like ghosts crying out of the grave; they flocked to a plat of watercresses as to a feast, though it afforded them small nourishment, and ate dead carrion, happy where they could find it, and soon after scraped the very carcasses out of the graves." Yet this "gentle poet" only describes this warfare, and all its attendant horrors, in order to recommend it for adoption by the Earl of Essex in the war then on foot against Hugh O'Neill; and though Essex did not fully carry out that ruthless plan, Lord Mountjoy, who succeeded him, did, by burning all the houses and destroying the corn and cattle, till the dead lay unburied in the fields in thousands. Prendergast quotes the following from a letter of the 'Commissioners of the Parliament of the Commonwealth of England for the affairs of Ireland:'

"DUBLIN, 1st July, 1650.

"Last Monday, Col. Hewson, with a considerable body

from hence, marched into Wicklow. Col. Hewson doth now intend to make use of scythes and sickles that were sent over in 1649, with which they intend to cut down the corn growing in those parts which the enemy is to live upon in the winter time, and thereby, for want of bread and cattle the Tories may be left destitute of provisions, and so forced to submit and quit those places." Under this destructive system of war, the country was becoming a waste, without cattle and without inhabitants.

Towards the close of the year 1653, the island seemed sufficiently desolated to allow the English to occupy it. On the 26th of September in that year the parliament passed an act for the new planting of Ireland with English. The government reserved for themselves all the towns, all the church lands and tithes. They reserved also for themselves the four counties of Dublin, Kildare, Carlow and Cork. Out of the lands and tithes thus reserved the government were to satisfy public debts, private favorites, eminent friends of the republican cause in parliament, regicides, and the most active of the English rebels, not being of the army.

They next made ample provision for the adventurers, the amount granted to whom was £360,000. This they divided into three lots, of which £110,000 was to be satisfied in Munster, £205,000 in Leinster, and £45,000 in Ulster, and the moiety of ten counties was charged with the payment. Waterford, Limerick, and Tipperary, in Munster; Meath, Westmeath, King's and Queen's counties, in Leinster; and Antrim, Down, and Armagh, in Ulster. But as it was required by the adventurer's act to be done by lot, a lottery was appointed be held in Grocer's Hall, London, for the 20th of July, 1653, where lots should be first drawn, in which project each adventurer was to be satisfied, not exceeding the specified amounts in any province; secondly, lots were to be drawn to ascertain in which of the ten counties each adventurer was to receive his land. And, as it was thought it would be a great encouragement to the adventurers (who were for the most part merchants and tradesmen) about to plant in so wild and dangerous a country, *not*

yet subdued, to have soldiers planted near them. These ten counties, when surveyed, were to be divided, each county by baronies, into two moieties, as equally as might be, without dividing any barony. A lot was then to be drawn by the adventurers, and by some officer oppointed by the Lord General Cromwell on behalf of the soldiery, to ascertain which baronies in the ten counties the adventurers should have and which the soldiers.

The rest of Ireland, except Connaught, was to be set out among the officers and soldiers.

Space will not permit any account of the difficulties encountered, the sufferings endured by the people in the efforts to enforce this wholesale transplantation of a nation. But the whole sad and wonderful story is graphically and circumstantially told in the excellent work of John P. Prendergast, entitled "The Cromwellian Settlement," an edition of which has been issued in New York by P. M. Haverty.

THE SUPPRESSED INDUSTRIES OF IRELAND.

WHY HAS IRELAND NO MANUFACTURES?

The question is frequently asked, Why has Ireland no manufactures? Why has she no commerce? Why has she always remained merely an agricultural country? The sea surrounds her as it surrounds the adjacent islands; the oceans are for her as well as for England. She has ninety harbors; no point of her hills or plains is more than fifty miles from navigable water. Her broad rivers are empty arteries, through which no current of national trade runs. In her soil are coal, copper ore, lead, zinc, nickel, gypsum, potters' clays, building stone, slate and marble. Why has she remained merely an agricultural country, with no income from any source but the products of the land which aliens have stolen?

THE REASON WHY IRISH INDUSTRY LANGUISHES.

It is a dry story, and it is as sad as it is dry. Ireland, in spite of her natural advantages, has no great manufactures because it has never been consistent with the commercial interests of her landlord—England—that she should have any. The English, by robbery and confiscation, got possession of the land; they found it of inestimable richness for cereal and pastoral purposes. It was convenient for them to limit the energies of the Irish people strictly to agriculture; they preferred to keep to themselves a monopoly of the markets for those manufac-

tured articles producable in Ireland, which could also be produced in England. They did not propose to permit a mere dependent whom they could take by the throat to rise into an industrial competitor. The Irish people made sturdy efforts from time to time to foster their manufactures; but the iron hand of English legislation was promptly put forth to strangle each infant industry as it began to give signs of life.

THE CLOTHING TRADE DISCOURAGED IN 1636.

"There is little or no manufactures among them," wrote Lord Strafford in 1636, while governing Ireland for the English crown; "but some small beginnings toward a clothing trade, which I had and so should still discourage all I could, unless otherwise directed by His Majesty and their Lordships (the king's council); in regard it would trench not only on the clothings of England, being our stable commodity, so as if they should manufacture their own wool, which grew to very great quantities, we should not only lose the profit we make now by indressing their wools, but his majesty lose extremely in his customs, and, in conclusion, it might be feared they might beat us out of the trade itself by underselling, which they are able to do." In Strafford's now quaint phrases is laid down the principle which has ever framed English policy toward Irish manufactures. This policy is easily analyzed.

England seized the land in Ireland. By taxing it for all it was worth, in the form of rents, she prevented the people from accumulating money which could be used as capital to start manufactures.

INFAMY OF ENGLAND ON THE CURRENCY AND COINAGE.

Not content with this, she imposed upon Ireland a base and spurious currency which she inflated or contracted, or debased, at her will. Thus, for centuries, while other nations were developing industries, and extending trade by land and water, Ireland was deprived of capital to begin manufactures at home, and the worthlessness of her currency made it undesirable for the enterprise of other countries to seek her shores and promote industrial barter.

In spite of the constant drain of money out of the island; in spite, too, of the vicious and unscrupulous interference with the currency, some manufactures, those which the peculiar resources of the country rendered easiest of cultivation, appeared. The English government practically suppressed them. As often as they eluded the vigilance of the English manufacturers, and sprang up again, they were subjected to grievous restrictions; and this course was maintained until the passage of the act of legislative union between Ireland and England in 1800, when it was stipulated that the trade of the two countries should be put on the same legal basis. This condition of the act was not carried out, for cross-channel duties were not abolished until 1875. To-day the laws apparently put no obstacle in the way of Irish manufactures; but the legislation of centuries had previously accomplished its purpose so effectually that repeal of the restraining and prohibitory statutes was almost harmless to English interests.

Before entering upon the history of Irish money and the suppression of Irish manufactures in those early periods, when a sure foundation could have been laid, it is necessary to say a word explanatory of the act of legislative union.

THERE WERE NOMINAL IRISH PARLIAMENTS,

from the thirteenth century up to the close of the eighteenth. But they were merely recording agents for the will of the English crown. They were composed at first chiefly of the English colonists and their dependents; the natives were almost wholly excluded from them. It would have been impossible to prevent numbers of the Irish from getting in, had not the penal laws come to the rescue of the government. Under these only the people who professed the faith prescribed by the English crown were eligible to membership in or to vote for members of the Irish Parliament. As four-fifths of the people of Ireland never adopted that form of faith, they were absolutely obliterated from representation, directly or indirectly. During part of the seventeenth and the whole of the

eighteenth century, the Irish Parliaments consisted of representatives of only one-fifth of the nation. This minority, exclusively protestant, governed the country agreeably to the orders of the English crown until the time of Swift.

PARLIAMENTARY INDEPENDENCE—1782.

A patriotic feeling then was engendered within it, and in 1782 Grattan induced the parliament to declare that it was independent of the English parliament, and had the sole right to make laws for Ireland. The American war had compelled the English crown to withdraw the regular troops from Ireland, and permit the enrollment of Irish volunteers for coast defense, in case of threatened invasion by the French. These volunteers, 80,000 in number, were in sympathy with the patriot party in the Irish parliament, and rather than run the risk of rebellion the English Government consented to the independence of the parliament, but the volunteers were disbanded. For eighteen years the Irish parliament continued independent to the extent of originating legislation, a privilege it had not previously enjoyed. It still represented only one-fifth of the people; but it manifested a strong tendency toward repealing the penal code which disfranchised the other four-fifths, and evinced so thoroughly enterprising a spirit in relation to Irish industry and manufactures that the English government determined to sweep it out of existence.

A PROGRAMME OF UNBLUSHING BRIBERY

was arranged, and £1,260,000 was expended in the purchase of members, many of whom were rewarded besides with titles of "nobility." It should be said in explanation of this astounding transaction that most of the members were English sympathizers in politics, and all in all religion. The Irish Parliament ceased to exist in 1800.

ENGLAND HAS NEVER HAD ANY MONEY TO SPARE TO ENCOURAGE IRISH INDUSTRY.

She has always been able to spend millions to put down

insurrection and to degrade morality. Elizabeth spent £3,000,000 in her Irish wars; the suppression of the rebellion of '98—covering a period of about five months —cost the English Crown from £30,000,000 to £50,000,000. To transfer the seat of legislation from Dublin to London, she could spend a million and a quarter pounds. But the government cannot loan a dollar to the Irish farmer, of the money stolen from him, for the occupancy of land stolen from his fathers—cannot spend a shilling reclaiming waste lands or draining bogs, and did not even provide a primary school for the people it robbed of their schools until thirty-five years ago.

SOME REMARKS ON COINAGE FOR IRELAND BY ENGLISH ROYAL THIEVES.

No chapter in the history of the relations of the two countries more perfectly exhibits the malice of England and the helplessness and misery of Ireland than that covering the coinage. Gold and silver were used at a very early period among the Irish. The first coinage of English money did not occur until 1210, when King John caused pennies, half-pennies and farthings to be coined of the same weight as those in Ireland. In the reign of Edward III the ounce of silver which had been previously cut into twenty deniers, was ordered into twenty six. In the reign of Henry VI brass money was thought good enough for Ireland. In 1465 it was ordered that all the gold coins struck in England during six reigns should *be raised in value in Ireland*, the "noble" from eight shillings and four pence to ten shillings, and its fractional parts in the same proportion—twenty per centum. In 1467 an act was passed by which the value of the English *silver coin was made double* what it had been in the previous reign. The result was, of course, a sudden increase in prices, producing general distress, and the only remedy supplied was a further corruption of the currency in the form of *new base coins.* In 1473 an act was passed to raise the value of silver still higher. In 1476 there was a scarcity of money; the coin was again debased, so that in 1509 it was necessary to determine the value of coins

by weighing them. When Henry VIII assumed the title of "King of Ireland" he caused new coins to be struck in his honor, and, not wishing to thrust them on the people of England on account of their baseness, it was made a crime punishable with fine *treble their value* and imprisonment, to import them *from* Ireland into England. Not content with this, he ordered

BRASS COINED IN IRELAND,

and, by proclamation, made it current money. Queen Mary improved the standard of money in England ; but Ireland was specifically excepted from the act, and *brass was ordered coined* for that island; in her reign, and in that of her two successors, over twenty-two thousand pounds of brass money was thrust upon Ireland. This shows that the oppression of Ireland by England has not been dictated solely by religious animosity. The religion professed upon the English throne never made any difference in the English policy enforced in Ireland. Queen Elizabeth ordered the ounce of silver cut into sixty pennies; it had previously been cut into twenty. The Queen decreed that shillings of the value of *nine pence* in England pass for *twelve pence in Ireland;* and it was subsequently ordered that all moneys current in England should be considered only bullion in Ireland, without legal value as money, a new standard of base moneys being provided for the latter. The *mixture* was coined in England and forced upon Ireland; goods and provisions rose at once; the landlord did not reduce his raised rent when the sterling money was subsequently restored; and the poor tenant, upon whom the most of the burden finally fell, found himself compelled to pay three hundred per cent. more than the price he had contracted for.

James I made a partial effort to remedy the evils produced by the Elizabethan legislation, but in 1609 it was ordered that the English shilling should pass in Ireland for sixteen pence, and the melting of gold and silver coin was prohibited under severe penalty. English money was at this time current in Ireland and the crown desired to prevent any reduction of it, even for art or industrial

purposes. The twenty-shilling piece passed for twenty-six shillings and eight pence. Exchange between Dublin and London was twenty-one shillings for fifteen. During the reign of Charles I, several attempts were made to derange the circulating medium still more, but the English adventurers and tradesmen found their own pockets the sufferers, and their influence effected the issuance of a proclamation requiring all payments to be made in sterling English money; but, lest the Irish should construe this as an act of justice to them, the same document decreed the effacement of all Irish symbols upon the coins. Charles II, after the restoration, granted a patent for twenty-one years to Sir Thomas Armstrong for coining copper farthings for Ireland and the circulation of all others was forbidden. In 1662 the king granted another patent to three goldsmiths for twenty-one years for coining silver money, on condition of paying to him twelve pence out of every pound troy.

In spite of all these efforts to make money "plenty and cheap," currency was so scarce that in 1672 several Irish towns struck coins of their own. The government, preferring to keep the profitable monopoly in its own hands, promptly issued proclamations making the town coinage illegal. The day after King James arrived in Dublin from France he inflated the currency. English gold was raised twenty per cent., silver eight and one-third. This did not prove adequate to the necessities; he therefore established two mints, one in Limerick and one in Dublin, and coined money composed of *brass* and *copper* mixed, to be taken for, respectively, six pence, twelve pence and half a crown. This money was made legal tender for all debts. Brass guns were melted into coin. And most extraordinary inducements were offered for metal delivered at the mint. Loans were solicited, payable on demand, with ten per cent. interest. The compound issued as money the people were compelled to take; any one who refused it was subjected to severe legal penalties. The coins were a curious mixture, according to Wakefield, of old guns, broken bells, old copper, brass and pewter, old kitchen utensils and the refuse of metals.

The workmen in the mint valued it at three or four pence the pound weight; it was legally current at any value the English king put upon it. When he left the country he and his fellows carried off with them large quantities of gold and silver, leaving the trash, over six million pounds of pretended "money," to their Irish victims.

King William III made his money proclamation, of course; he reduced the value of King James' coins, making the crown and half crown pass for a penny each, and the shilling and six pence for a farthing. In the last year of his reign he reduced the price of gold and silver in Ireland. Queen Anne made no money for Ireland but "regulated" what her predecessors had made, and George I enjoys having roused into activity that surly lion, Dean Swift, by issuing the famous patent to William Wood for the manufacture of copper half pence and farthings for exclusive use in Ireland. One pound of copper was to be coined into two shillings and six pence; one hundred tons were to be issued for the first year, and twenty tons each succeeding year. His Majesty's share of the profits was fixed at eight hundred pounds per annum, and his comptrollers at two hundred pounds per annum. The loss to Ireland would have been over sixty thousand pounds. The Protestants in Ireland had by this time sufficient strength to resist so enormous a swindle; and their sturdy spirit was expressed by Swift in the amusing "Drapier's Letters." The coin in the island then was estimated by Primate Boulter at about four hundred thousand pounds. The consequence of the introduction of Wood's cheap copper, he apprehended would be "the loss of our silver and gold, to the ruin of our trade and manufacture, and the sinking of all our estates here." Boulter was leader of the English party in Ireland. He was anxious to have every office in Ireland filled by Englishmen. He was a strenuous advocate of the penal code, and a "godly man" who would have sacrificed everything in Ireland for the maintenance of the English Crown, except his own private interests. Wood's halfpence menaced these; to this lofty motive the Irish were indebted for the primate's active opposition to the scheme.

When Molyneux in 1698, published his statement of Irish political and industrial grievances, the English government ordered the work burnt; but Boulter, who was the most influential politician in Ireland, and Swift, the most effective essayist in the two kingdoms, were not thus to be annihilated. Swift's bitter satire proved too much for Wood, who surrendered his patent in 1724, after about seventeen thousand pounds had been sent over to Ireland. Boulter mentioned as one of his chief objections to the half-pence that it "had a very unhappy influence on the state of this nation by bringing on intimacies between Papists and Jacobites and the Whigs." Swift's letters actually united all classes of the people against the half-pence and against the king. A reward was offered for the discovery of the author of the "Fourth Letter," in which Swift stated that "*government without the consent of the governed is the very definition of slavery;*" and the government instituted prosecution against the printer, but the grand jury refused to bring in a bill. The lesson was salutary, if brief; when the king ordered another copper coinage more than ten years later, it was left optional with the people to take or refuse it. The differences arising from the tinkering of the money continued, however, and every expedient resorted to, being devised solely to benefit England, proved mischievous.

The three ways by which money may be altered at the expense of the country in which it circulates,—reducing the weight, debasing the quality, and raising the nominal value,—all had been repeatedly tried, to the great profit of the foreign rulers of Ireland, and to the constant injury and demoralization of her trade and the suffocation of her industries. Every time the value of the money was raised, the debtors were robbed; every time it was lowered, the creditors were robbed. Credit was destroyed; for no man could tell when contracting a debt, what sum he might ultimately have to pay, and no man could afford to extend favors, not knowing what return he might receive. In Ireland, especially, credit was absolutely essential to the progress of the infant industries, since the capital of the country was small by compulsion, and the native

gold and silver was hurried abroad to absentee proprietors. The incessant inflation and depression of the currency and the intrinsic worthlessness of so large a portion of it, made credit simply impossible. No count in the fearful indictment which England has written for herself in Irish legislation is more grave, therefore, than her heartless alteration and corruption of Irish money. Her sole purpose was to enrich English tradesmen at Irish expense; in that she succeeded, but she succeeded at the same time in retarding many industries in Ireland and in quite extinguishing others. Without a stable currency no man has confidence in his neighbor; without confidence, there can be no credit; without credit trade is impossible; without trade manufactures languish and expire. If Ireland be a country without industries, let the world place the responsibility where it belongs and let the motive animating that responsibility be properly understood.

ESTABLISHMENT OF BANKS IN IRELAND.

There was no bank in Ireland until 1783. The first savings bank was opened in 1810. But the pernicious effects of the policy pursued for centuries by the English government had insinuated itself into the minds of the people; many who entrusted to the banks what they saved lost it, many more secretly hoarded their little gain. There is not a healthy feeling about money in Ireland to this day; and the land system must prevent the development of such a feeling while the present laws remain in force. The tenant knows that if, after a good season, he is a few pounds ahead, and puts the money in bank or loans it on security, his rent will be forthwith raised. He has no motive for thrift. He ought, rather, prefer moderate to good harvests. The savings banks make a respectable showing, but their patrons are the town merchants and the small proprietors. Every shilling the toiling tenant can make above the meagre subsistence of his family is destined, not for the savings bank, but for the landlord. He can feel no inducement to save a shilling until the landlord and he are put on a just footing before the law.

It is certainly a moderate statement that no country can build up a system of industries without a stable currency. England never permitted Ireland to have such a currency in the years when she might have built up manufactures. It is equally evident that no country which is constantly drained of the proceeds of its natural wealth, can accumulate capital to invest in industrial enterprise. England drains Ireland, through her iniquitous land system, of the money which, if left at home, would be used as manufacturing capital. The money goes now to pay the luxurious living of Irish landlords resident in England and on the continent.

THE CULTIVATION OF FLAX.

The delicately close relation between land tenure and manufacturing industry in Ireland is illustrated strikingly in flax. This requires nine years rotation of crops. What small farmer can afford to use his soil for this valuable seed when he knows that he may be turned off his holding whenever his landlord pleases. Yet the linen manufacture to which the flax is essential,—the only Irish industry England never succeeded in killing,—is the largest and most profitable in Ireland. If it has striven so sturdily under such disadvantageous circumstances, what might it not become, with Ireland's immense water power and abundant and cheap labor, were the general cultivation of flax made possible by fixity of tenure or a peasant proprietary?

THE LINEN AND WOOLEN INDUSTRIES

are probably the oldest in Ireland. They had reached extensive proportions when the English invasion occurred, both were exported in the fifteenth century. The woolen trade of England grew jealous of the Irish manufacturers who, as already shown by Strafford's letter, were able to undersell the English traders; and the suppression of the manufacture of wool was deliberately planned in England. In the early part of the seventeenth century, the exportation of wool from Ireland was absolutely prohibited. This was a severe blow upon Irish industry; its

effect was not limited to a diminution of the manufacture itself; the moral consequence was deeper and more extensive than the material. Irish thrift felt that it was rebuked and discouraged. Irish industry recognized that it had no place under English rule. The prohibition was, in fact, an official notice from the English crown to the Irish people that they must not engage in manufacture, and that if they did, the profits of their enterprise should cross the channel, or the enterprise itself should be suppressed. The woolen trade was revived somewhat by the home demand; and as soon as this was discovered by the English manufacturers, fresh legislation was procured to *suppress it absolutely*, so that the English manufacturers might have Ireland for their own exclusive market. This was actually done, so far as legislation could do it, by imposing enormous duties upon the manufactured goods. Before the prohibition of the export, the value and dimension of the Irish woolen trade may be judged from Dean Swift's statement that foreign silver was the current money in Ireland, and that a man could hardly receive a hundred pounds without finding in it the coin of all the northern powers. The jealousy of the English weavers cut Ireland off from the northern trade. The result was not confined either to Ireland or England.

Many of the Irish manufacturers, whose business was thus destroyed, left their Irish debts unpaid, adding thus to the misery of the poor, and went to France, Spain and the Netherlands. The woolen manufacture in France rose upon the ruin of that in Ireland. The ruin was practically complete. The restrictions were relaxed when English jealousy no longer needed their enforcement. The official returns laid before the House of Commons in 1875, showed that there are in the United Kingdom 1,800 woolen factories; of these but 60 are in Ireland, giving employment to only 1,506 persons. A recent number of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, speaking of Irish woolen manufacture, admits that "its growth has been stunted by nearly 350 years of legislative restrictions and prohibitory tariffs."

Had the woolen trade, for whose cultivation Ireland

was so well fitted and so well inclined, been permitted to exist, many other industries would have thriven with it; but its suppression discouraged the spirit of industry and even artificial stimulants failed to make very profitable the English capital invested for a time in Irish linen; for as soon as the English linen manufacturers detected Irish competition in foreign markets, restrictions were laid on that industry also. It can never exceed its present insignificant size until the ownership of the land makes the flax culture safe; indeed, it has of late years been declining. It is almost needless to speak of the

MANUFACTURE OF COTTON IN IRELAND.

There were eight factories in 1875; in 1879 they declined to six; in 1871 there were fourteen. The manufacture of cotton was introduced into Ireland in 1777, as a means of employment for the children in the Belfast poor house. Many persons who had been earning their bread in the woolen trade were out of employment, and to use their labor the experiment was extended. It was consistent with English interest to encourage it for a time, and it prospered so well that Wakefield speaks of it in 1812 as "now fully established in Ireland," and holding out "strong hopes of success and prosperity." It even lent to some parts of the country "an appearance of superior opulence and industry." But during the war with America in 1812–1815, the English cotton trade was so affected that the Irish production of that article became intolerable. It was therefore practically annihilated in 1816, and to-day, after so long an interval, it amounts to little or nothing, only eight factories being reported in 1875, employing about 3,000 persons. Other minor industries, such as worsted, shoddy, hemp, jute, hair, silk, and hosiery, have grown a little during the present century; they are at present in a state of decay. The money that would maintain them until they could maintain themselves, is drawn out of the country. Lace-making, which at one time was quite a prominent industry, has almost disappeared.

THE CATTLE-TRADE IN IRELAND

is one of the oldest of her industries. Its history is that of all the rest. When consistent with English interests, it was tolerated; when profitable to England, it was encouraged; when inconvenient for English cattle-raisers, it was restricted. In the middle of the seventeenth century, it was very prosperous. In 1663 England suffered from the contraction and depression of foreign war. It was necessary to resort to some means to improve the spirits of the commercial classes, and an act was passed, entitled "For the encouragement of trade," prohibiting the exportation of live stock from Ireland. The Irish graziers tried to repair the injury done them by killing the animals and exporting the meat salted. This was promptly rebuked. In 1665 an act was passed prohibiting the export of cattle, "dead or alive, fat or lean." And just here an episode is recalled upon which every man may make his own comment. The great fire of London occurred in 1666. The plague had done its awful work during the previous year. Great destitution ensued among the English poor. Notwithstanding the brutal disposition England had displayed toward Ireland the Irish people were touched by English distress. They had no money to send; their textile industries were languishing in obedience to English prohibition. All they had to spare was cattle, and a large supply of these was kindly sent over to help feed the famishing. The gift was greedily enough consumed; but, instead of being acknowledged as both its substantial value and the spirit that sent it should have been, it was loudly denounced—after being eaten—as "a political continuance to defeat the prohibition of Irish cattle." When an attempt was subsequently made to procure a repeal of the prohibition, the King himself was induced to listen to the prayers of the Irish graziers; but the English Parliament stolidly refused, the Commons characterized the Irish cattle trade as "a nuisance," and the more dignified lords pronounced it "a detriment and mischief." At one time Ireland had some manufactories for produc-

ing glass. Statutes were enacted prohibiting the exportation of the article from Ireland, or its importation from any country but England.

Perhaps it may be suggested that the timber in Ireland having disappeared and the coal being deficient in quantity and inferior in quality, Ireland could not have become a great manufacturing country even if English legislation had not been malicious. It is sufficient to allude to her immense water power which her people have been prevented from utilizing; and to add that English coals have always been cheaper in Dublin and at other manufacturing points in Ireland than in London. Friendly legislation—indeed, no legislation—would have enabled Ireland to take a very respectable place among manufacturers; and, but for English legislation, the Irish farmer would have been able to exchange at home the produce of the soil for clothing and other necessaries. During the famine year of '47, more than enough grain was raised in Ireland to feed all her people. It had to be sent out of the country, partly because the land that produced it was held chiefly by the heirs of the original robbers; and partly because the Irish farmers who had anything to sell were compelled to sell it abroad in order to procure the manufactured articles they needed, most of which could have been manufactured in Ireland had English legislation permitted.

In a word, English legislation, by vesting in aliens the land seized by robbery and confiscation; and by suppressing Irish industries, has made poverty in Ireland compulsory; has made periodical famine in Ireland certain; and and there will be no remedy for these evils until the land of Ireland is restored to the people of Ireland, and until an Irish legislature has the chance to make the laws to build up Irish manufactures. History furnishes no instance of one nation developing the industrial resources of another. If Ireland is ever to arise from her present depression, it will be the result of her own independent efforts, untrammeled from a foreign legislature, and having no object in view but the material and moral benefit of her own people. The Irish-Americans in the United

States have sent $65,000,000 to Ireland in twenty years. All this is a tax levied upon the people of the United States to support English mis-rule and Irish ruin in Ireland. It is, therefore, the interest of the United States as well as of Ireland that England should cease to make laws for Ireland and collect in the United States the tax to enforce them.

PENAL LAWS.

"By the treaty of Limerick, the Irish catholic people stipulated for and obtained the pledge of "the faith and honor" of the English crown, for the equal protection by law of their properties and their liberties with all other subjects—and in particular for the free and unfettered exercise of their religion. The Irish in every respect performed with scrupulous accuracy the stipulations on their part of the Treaty of Limerick. That treaty was totally violated by the British Government the moment it was perfectly safe to violate it. That violation was perpetrated by the enactment of a code of the most dexterous but atrocious severity that ever stained the annals of legislation. Let me select a few instances of the barbarity with which the Treaty of Limerick was violated, under these heads:

First—PROPERTY.

Every Catholic was, by act of Parliament, deprived of the power of settling a jointure on any Catholic wife, or charging his lands with any provision for his daughters, or disposing by will of his landed property. On his death the law divided his lands equally amongst his sons.

All the relations of private life were thus violated. If the wife of a Catholic declared herself a Protestant, the law enabled her not only to compel her husband to give her a separate maintenance, but to transfer to her the custody and guardianship of all the children.

Thus the wife was encouraged and empowered successfully to rebel against her husband.

If the eldest son of a Catholic father at any age, how-

ever young, declared himself a Protestant, he thereby made his father a tenant for life, deprived the father of all power to sell or dispose of his estate, and such Protestant son became entitled to an absolute dominion and ownership of the estate.

Thus the eldest son was encouraged, and indeed, bribed by the law to rebel against his father.

If any other child beside the eldest son declared itself, at any age, a Protestant, such child at once escaped the control of its father and was entitled to a maintenance out of the father's property.

Thus the law encouraged every child to rebel against its father.

If any Catholic purchased for money any estate in land, any Protestant was empowered by law to take away that estate from the Catholic, and to enjoy it without paying one shilling of the purchase money.

This was English law in Ireland. The Catholic paid the money, whereupon the Protestant took the estate and the Catholic lost both money and estate.

If any Catholic got an estate in land by marriage, by the gift or by the will of a relation or friend, any Protestant could by law take the estate from the Catholic and enjoy it himself.

If any Catholic took a lease of a farm of land as tenant at a rent for a life or lives, or for any longer term than thirty-one years, any Protestant could by law take the farm from the Catholic, and enjoy the benefit of the lease.

If any Catholic took a farm by lease for a term not exceeding thirty-one years, as he might still by law have done, and by his labor and industry raised the value of the land, so as to yield a profit equal to one-third of the rent, any Protestant might then by law evict the Catholic and enjoy for the residue of the term the fruit of the labor and industry of the Catholic.

If any Catholic had a horse worth more than five pounds, any Protestant tendering five pounds to the Catholic owner, was by law entitled to take the horse, though worth fifty or one hundred pounds, and to keep it as his own.

If any Catholic, being the owner of a horse worth more

than five pounds, concealed his horse from any Protestant, the Catholic, for the crime of concealing his own horse, was liable to be punished by an imprisonment of three months, and a fine of three times the value of the horse, whatever that might be.

So much for the laws regulating, by act of parliament, the property—or rather plundering by due course of law the property—of the Catholic.

I notice

Secondly—EDUCATION.

If a Catholic kept a school, or taught any person, Protestant or Catholic, any species of literature or science, such teacher was, for the crime of teaching, punishable by law by banishment, and if he returned from banishment he was subject to be hanged as a felon.

If a Catholic, whether a child or adult, attended, in Ireland, a school kept by a Catholic, or was privately instructed by a Catholic, such Catholic although a child in its early infancy, incurred a forfeiture of all its property, present or future.

If a Catholic child, however young, was sent to a foreign country for education, such infant child incurred a similar penalty—that is, a forfeiture of all right to property, present or prospective.

If any person in Ireland made any remittance of money or goods for the maintenance of any Irish child educated in a foreign country, such person incurred a similar forfeiture.

Thirdly—PERSONAL DISABILITIES.

The law rendered every Catholic incapable of holding a commission in the army or navy, or even to be a private soldier, unless he solemnly abjured his religion.

The law rendered every Catholic incapable of holding any office whatsoever of honor or emolument in the State. The exclusion was universal.

A Catholic had no legal protection for life or liberty. He could not be a Judge, Grand Juror, Sheriff, Sub-sheriff, Master in Chancery, Six Clerk, Barrister, Attorney,

Agent or Solicitor, or Seneschal of any manor, or even gamekeeper to a private gentleman.

A Catholic could not be a member of any corporation, and Catholics were precluded by law from residence in some corporate towns.

Catholics were deprived of all right of voting for members of the Commons House of Parliament.

Catholic Peers were deprived of their right to sit or vote in the House of Lords.

Almost all these personal disabilities were equally enforced by law against any Protestant who married a Catholic wife, or whose child was educated as a Catholic, although against his consent.

Fourthly—RELIGION.

To teach the Catholic religion was a transportable felony; to convert a Protestant to the Catholic faith was a capital offense, punishable as an act of treason.

To be a Catholic Archbishop or Bishop, or exercise any ecclesiastical jurisdiction whatsoever in the Catholic church in Ireland, was punishable by transportation;—to return from such transportation was an act of high treason, punishable by being hanged, disembowelled alive, and afterwards quartered.

After this enumeration, will you, Illustrious Lady, be pleased to recollect that each and every of these laws, was a palpable and direct violation of a solemn treaty to which the faith and honor of the British Crown was pledged, and the justice of the English nation unequivocally engaged?

There never yet was such a horrible code of persecution invented—so cruel, so cold-blooded, calculating, emaciating, universal as this legislation, which the Irish-Orange faction, the Shaws, the Lefroys, the Verners of the day did invent and enact, a code exalted to the utmost height of infamy, by the fact, that it was enacted in the basest violation of a solemn engagement and deliberate treaty. It is not possible for me to describe that code in adequate language; it almost surpassed the eloquence of Burke to do so. "It had," as Burke described it— "it

had a vicious perfection—it was a complete system, full of coherence and consistency; well-digested and well-disposed in all its parts. It was a machine of wise and elaborate contrivance, and well fitted for the oppression, impoverishment and degredation of a people, and the debasement in them of human nature itself, as ever proceeded from the perverted ingenuity of man.

This code prevented the accumulation of property, and punished industry as a crime. Was there ever such legislation in any other country, Christian or Pagan? But this is not all; because the party who inflicted this horrible code, *actually reproached the Irish people with willful and squalid poverty.*

This code enforced ignorance by statute law, and punished the acquisition of knowledge as felony. Is this credible? Yet it is true. But that is not all; for the party that thus persecuted learning, *reproached and still reproach the Irish people with ignorance.*" The above brief and incomplete epitome of this shameful Draconian code of English legislation for Ireland is taken from a Memoir on Ireland, Native and Saxon, by Daniel O'Connell, M. P., humbly inscribed to her Most Gracious Majesty, the Queen of Great Britain and Ireland, Feb. 1st, 1843.

For a few years after the Treaty of Limerick had been solemnly ratified, Sarsfield, with the bulk of his army having entered into the service of France, the Irish enjoyed a season of comparative quiet, prosperity and peace. There was a tacit toleration of Catholic worship, though it was against the law; priests were not hunted, though by law they were felons; and for a short time it appeared as though the Protestant party would content itself with the forfeiture of the rich estates of the exiles, and the exclusion of Catholics from the professions, public offices, trades and guilds of trades, and from the corporate bodies of the towns. This was the extent of the toleration accorded to the prescribed Catholics in the early years of William's reign. Though they were not debarred by express statute from sitting or voting in Parliament, it was enacted that " no Catholic shall be entitled to vote at

the election of any member to serve in Parliament as a knight, citizen, or burger; or at the election of any magistrate for any city or any town corporate, any statute, law or usage to the contrary notwithstanding." Not only did William give his royal sanction to the laws of exclusion made by his Parliament of 1692, but he did not make any proposal or any effort to gain for the Irish Catholics those further securities "as engaged by the Treaty of Limerick, which were intended to protect from all disturbance in the free exercise of their religion." Yet this was but a trifling matter in comparison to the acts he gave effect to in the following Parliament, which was convened in 1695. One of the first enactments of this Parliament is entitled "An Act for the better securing the Government by disarming the Papists." "By this act," says Mitchel, in his History of Ireland, p. 14, "All Catholics within the Kingdom of Ireland were required to discover and deliver up by a certain day, to the justices or civil officers, all their arms and ammunition. After that day search might be made in their houses for concealed arms and ammunition, and any two justices, or a mayor or sheriff, might grant the search-warrant, and compel any Catholic suspected of having concealed arms, etc., to appear before them and answer under oath" (7th William III, c. 5.) The punishments were to be fine and imprisonment, or at the discretion of the court, the pillory and whipping. It is impossible to describe the minute and curious tyranny to which this Statute gave rise in every parish of the island. Especially in districts where there was an armed yeomanry exclusively Protestant, it fared ill with any Catholic who fell, for any reason, under the displeasure of his formidable neighbors. Any pretext was sufficient for pointing him out to suspicion. Any neighboring magistrate might visit him at any hour of the night, and search his bed for arms. No Papist was safe from suspicion who had any money to pay in fines; and woe to the Papist who had a handsome daughter." This enactment, under various new forms and names, is, and has been the law in Ireland from that day to the present time.

"It would be difficult to imagine any method of degrading human nature more effectual than the prohibition of arms; but this Parliament resolved to employ still another way. This was to prohibit education. "King William was all this time busily engaged in carrying on the war against Louis XIV, and his mind was profoundly occupied about the destinies of Europe. He seems to have definitively given up Ireland, to be dealt with by the Ascendency party at its pleasure. Yet he had received the benefit of the capitulation of Limerick; he had engaged his royal faith to its observance; he had further engaged that he would endeavor to procure said Roman Catholics such further security as might preserve them from any disturbance on account of their religion. And he not only did not endeavor to procure any such further security, but he gave his royal assent to every one of those acts of Parliament, carefully depriving them of such securities as they had, and opposing new and grievous oppressions upon the account of their said religion."

"It is expressly on account of this shameful breach of faith on the part of the King that Orange squires and gentlemen, from that day to this, have been enthusiastically toasting 'the glorious, pious and immortal memory of the great and good King William.'"

In the meantime Sarsfield and the "Irish Brigade, in the service of France, were winning glory and fame, and multitudes of young Irishmen were quitting their own land, where they were regarded as strangers and treated as outlaws, to find under the banners of France, Austria and Spain opportunities for obtaining distinction they could not hope to win on their own soil. The Abbe Mac Geoghegan, who was chaplain of the Irish Brigade in France, from researches made in the French War Department, shows that from the arrival of the Irish troops in France, in 1691 to the year 1745, the year of Fontenoy, more than four hundred and fifty thousand Irishmen died in the service of France alone."

"The statement," says Mitchel, "may seem almost incredible, especially as Spain and Austria had also their

share of our military exiles; but, certain it is, the expatriation of the very best and choicest of the Irish people was now on a very large scale; and the remaining population, deprived of their natural chiefs, became still more helpless in the hands of their enemies."

From the time of the Munster plantation by Elizabeth, numerous exiles had taken service in the Spanish army. There were Irish regiments serving in the low countries. The Prince of Orange declared these were born soldiers; and Henry IV, of France, publicly called Hugh O'Neill, the third soldier of the age, and he said there was no nation made better troops than the Irish when well drilled. Sir John Norris, who had served in many countries, said he knew no nation where there was so few fools or cowards. Agents from the King of Spain, King of Poland, and the Prince de Conde, were now contending for the services of Irish troops. Don Rickard White, in May 1652, shipped 7,000 batches from Waterford, Kinsale, Galway, Limerick, and Bantry, for the King of Spain. Col. Christopher Mays got liberty in September, 1652, to beat his drum to raise 3,000 for the same King. Lord Muskerry took 5,000 to the King of Poland. In July, 1654, 3,500, commanded by Col. Edward Dwyer, went to serve the Prince de Conde. Sir Walter Dungan and others got liberty to beat their drums in different garrisons to a rallying of their men that laid down their arms in order to a rendezvous, and to depart for Spain. They got permission to march their men together to the different ports, their pipers playing "Ha til, Ha til, Ha til, me trelidh."—We return no more, we return no more. "It is the same tune with which departing Highlanders usually bid farewell to their native shores. Between 1651 and 1654, thirty-four thousand (of whom few ever saw their loved native land again) were transported to foreign parts." Prendergast, pp. 78–9; who also quotes Sir W. Petty's "Political Anatomy," published in 1672. "The chiefest and eminentest of the nobility and many of the gentry have taken conditions from the King of Spain, and have transported 40,000 of the most active spirited men, most acquainted with the dangers and discipline of war."

Matthew O'Connor, commenting on the Irish people's sufferings from the effects of the Penal Laws, gives the following mournful account, an account the truthfulnes of which is fully confirmed by other veracious historians.

"The Popery laws had, in the course of half a century, consummated the ruin of the lower orders. Their habitations, visages, dress and despondency exhibited the deep distress of a people ruled with the iron sceptre of conquest. The lot of the negro slave compared with that of the Irish helot was happiness itself. Both were subject to the capricious cruelty of mercenary task-masters and unfeeling proprietors; but the negro slave was well fed, well clothed and comfortably lodged. The Irish peasant was half starved, half naked and half housed—the canopy of heaven being often the only roof to the mud-built walls of his cabin. The fewness of negroes gave the West India proprietor an interest in the preservation of his slave; a superabundance of helots superseded all interest in the comfort or preservation of the Irish cottier. The code had eradicated every feeling of humanity, and avarice sought to stifle every sense of justice. That avarice was generated by prodigality, the hereditary vice of the Irish gentry, and manifested itself in exhorbitant rack-rent wrung from their tenantry, and in the low wages paid for their labor. Since the days of King William, the price of the necessaries of life had trebled, and the day's hire—fourpence—had continued stationary.

"The oppression of tithes was little inferior to the tyranny of rack-rents; while the great landholder was nearly exempt from the pressure, a tenth of the produce of the cottier's labor was exacted for the purposes of a religious establishment from which he derived no benefit. . . . The peasant had no resouree: not trade or manufactures—they were discouraged; not emigration to France—the vigilance of the government precluded foreign enlistment; not emigration to America—his poverty precluded the means. Ireland, the land of his birth, became his prison, where he counted the days of his misery in the deepest despondency."

Is it to be wondered at that conspiracies, secret associ-

ations and insurrections were the result; or should the wonder be that such commotions were less universal and prolonged? But what can a disarmed, impoverished people effect of themselves alone?

Sir John Davies, who was for many years Attorney-General in Ireland, to that pragmatical and despicable tyrant, James the First, has been quoted several times in this work as an undoubted authority, as he must be allowed to be, as to the mode in which the conqueror disposed of the country and treated the people. In his Historical Relations, Davies says: "All Ireland was by Henry II cantonized among ten of the English nation, namely: Earl of Pembroke, or Strongbow, Robert Fitz Stephens, Miles de Cogan, Philip Bruce, Sir Hugh De Lacey, Sir John de Courcey, William Burke, Fitz Andelm, Sir Thomas de Clare, Otho de Grandison, and Robert le Poer, and though they had gained possession of but one-third of the Kingdom, yet in title they were owners and lords of all, so as nothing was left to be granted to the natives!!" Henry afterwards granted a special charter, conceding the benefit of the English laws to five Irish families. They were called in pleading, "persons of the five bloods," *de quinque sanguinibus.*

"These were the O'Neills, of Ulster; O'Melachlins, of Meath; the O'Connors, of Connaught; the O'Briens, of Thomond, and the McMurroughs of Leinster."—[Davies' Hist. Rel., p. 45.

"That the Irish were reputed aliens, appeareth by sundry records, wherein judgments are demanded, if they shall be answered in actions brought by them." Sir John Davies, in his Historical Tracts, p. 78, relates:

"In the Common Plea Rolls, of 28 Edw. III, (which are yet preserved in the castle of Dublin) this case is adjudged. Simon Neale brought an action against William Newburgh for breaking his close in Clondalkin Co. Dublin: defendant doth plead that the plaintiff is *Hibernicus et non de quinque sanguinibus* (an Irishman and not of the five bloods), and demandeth judgment, if he shall be answered. The plaintiff replieth that he is of the five bloods, to wit: Of the O'Neills of Ulster, who by

the grant of our Lord, the King, ought to enjoy and use the English liberties, and for freemen to be reputed in law.

"The defendant rejoineth: That the plaintiff is not of the O'Neills of Ulster, nor of the five bloods; and, therefore, they are at issue, which being found for the plaintiff, he had judgment to recover his damages against the defendant.

Again in the 29th, Edward I, before the Justices in Oyer, at Drogheda, Thomas Le Botteler brought an action of detenue against Robert de Almain, for certain goods: "The defendant pleadeth: That he is not bound to answer the plaintiff for this, that the plaintiff is an Irishman and not of free blood.

"And the aforesaid Thomas says that he is an Englishman, and this he prays may be inquired of by the country. Therefore, let a jury come, and so forth; and the jurors, on their oath, say that the aforesaid Thomas is an Englishman. Therefore it is adjudged that he do receive his damages."

Thus these records demonstrate that the Irishman had no protection for his property, because, if the plaintiff in either case had been declared to be an Irishman, the action would be barred, though the injury was not denied upon the records to have been committed. The validity of the plea in point of law was also admitted, so that, no matter what injury might be committed upon the real or personal property of an Irishman, the courts of law afforded him no species of remedy.

But this absence of protection was not confined to property; the Irishman was equally unprotected in his person and his life. The following quotation from Davies' Hist. Tracts, page 82, puts this beyond doubt:

"The real Irish were not only accounted aliens, but enemies, and altogether out of the protection of the law; so as it was no capital offence to kill them; and this is manifest by many records. At a jail delivery at Waterford, before John Wogan, Lord Justice of Ireland, the 4th of Edw. II, we find it recorded among the pleas of the crown of that year, that Robert Wallace, being ar-

raigned of the death of John, the son of Juor MacGillemory, by him felonously slain, and so forth, came and well acknowledged that he slew the aforesaid John, yet he said, that by his slaying he could not commit felony, because he said that the aforesaid John was a mere Irishman, and not of the five bloods, and so forth; and he further said, that inasmuch as the lord of the aforesaid John, whose Irishman the aforesaid John was, on the day on which he was slain had sought payment for the aforesaid slaying of the aforesaid John as his Irishman, he, the said Robert, was ready to answer for such payment as was just in that behalf. And thereupon a certain John Le Poer came, and for our Lord the King said that the aforesaid John, the son of Juor MacGillemory, and his ancestors of that sur-name, from the time of our Lord Henry Fitz Empress, heretofore Lord of Ireland, the ancestors of our Lord the now King, was in Ireland, the law of England thence to the present day, of right had and ought to have, and according to that law ought to be judged and to inherit; and so pleaded the character of denization granted to the Ostmen, all of which appeareth at large in the aforesaid record, wherein we may note that the killing of an Irishman was not punished by our law as manslaughter, which is felony and capital, for the law did not protect his life nor avenge his death but by a fine or pecuniary punishment.

There is another case of record tried before the same Judge in 4th Edwd. II, which still more distinctly shows the perfect right claimed and enjoyed by the English in Ireland, of slaughtering with impunity "the mere Irish."

"William Fitz Roger, being arraigned for the death of Roger de Cantelon, by him feloniously slain, comes and says that he could not commit felony by such killing, because the aforesaid Roger was an Irishman, and not of free blood. And he further says that the said Roger was of the surname of O'Hederiscal, and not of the surname of Cantelon; and of this he puts himself on the country, and so forth. And the jury upon their oath say, that the aforesaid Roger was an Irishman of the surname of O'Hederiscal, and for an Irishman, was reputed all the

days of his life; and therefore the said William, as far as regards the aforesaid felony, is acquitted. But inasmuch as the aforesaid Roger O'Hederiscal was an Irishman of our lord the King, the aforesaid William was re-committed to jail, until he shall find pledges to pay five marks to our lord the King, *for the value of the said Irishman.*"

When James the Second was outlawed in England and had to flee for his life, he met with a hearty welcome from the Irish people. They had, to be sure, little reason to have much regard, respect, or confidence in any of the Stuart family. But James' case appealed to their every prejudice, to their every feeling. He was hounded by the English because he had dared to have the courage of his convictions and profess the Catholic faith—and had not the Irish people suffered for the self-same reason? He was the victim of a daughter's unnatural conduct, and of the ingratitude of a man who was at the same time his nephew and son-in-law. More than all, and above all—aye, conceal it as the historians and politicians may—he had incurred the hatred of that perfidious and brutal race whom the Irish have hated, hate now, and will hate so long as warm blood pulsates in their veins, the cold-blooded, calculating and mercenary English. They (the English) had adopted the phlegmatic Dutchman as their sovereign. The Irish adopted the Scotchman as theirs. Many Irish historians claim credit for the Irish on account of their *loyalty* on this occasion. This is a mistake; the Irish were not loyal and never will be loyal to a monarch not of their own choosing. They took up the cause of James because he was the representative of the opposition to the dominant party in England. They would have supported William, Prince of Orange, with as much zeal—and certainly to better purpose—did they believe that he equally represented hostility to England. And surely, brave men never drew a sword or shook a bridle rein for a more worthless and cowardly poltroon than James the Second. The name by which he is to this day known in every Irish cabin but faintly expresses the contempt of the Irish for the man who fled precipitately from the Boyne, taking with him the best

regiment of the Irish soldiers. Lady Tryconnell's taunt, that he beat all the other runaways in the race from the Boyne, was well-deserved. The exclamation of the Irish officer to the English general after the battle: "Exchange kings with us and we will fight the battle over again," fully expresses the feelings of those, who fought and lost on that dreadful day at the Boyne, and who, though few and faint, were fearless still."

There is little need in a work like this to go into the details of the Williamite wars in Ireland, but that the English romancist, sometimes misnamed historian Macauley, has totally misrepresented the conduct of the Irish soldiers on that occasion. The English won the battle of the Boyne, not by superior powers, but by superior generalship. The army of William was for its numbers the best appointed ever placed on a field of battle; his principal generals were veterans in many "foreign wars tried"; there were the Swiss, the Danes, the Dutch, the Hugenots, veterans of every European war. William was well supplied with cannon, James had scarcely any. What had James to oppose to them? A few regiments of French soldiers, some raw Irish levies, and a goodly and gallant array of Irish horse, led by a brave general, through whose veins it was hard to believe any of the blood of James flowed—the gallant young Duke of Berwick, and some by a more illustrious leader still, who afterwards proved "what Irishmen can do"—Patrick Sarsfield, Earl of Lucan. Mr. A. M. Sullivan's description of the battle of the Boyne is the best yet written, and is here given. After describing the position of either army he says: "In accordance with the plan of battle arranged the previous night, the first move on William's side was the march of 10,000 men with five pieces of artillery for the bridge of Slane . . . . to turn the flank of James' army.

SUPERIORITY OF THE ENGLISH ALLIED FORCES.

The infantry portion of his force crossing at Slane . . came upon Sir Neal O'Neill and his 500 dragoons on the extreme left of the Jacobite position. For fully an hour did the gallant O'Neill hold this force in check, he him-

self falling mortally wounded in the thick of the fight. But soon the Danish horse crossing at Ross-na-ree, the full force of ten thousand men advanced upon the Jacobite flank. Just at this moment there arrived, however, a force of French and Swiss infantry and some Irish horse under Lauzun, who so skillfully posted his checking force on the slope of a hill with a marsh in front, that Douglas and Schomberg, notwithstanding their enormous numerical superiority, did not venture to attack until they had obtained an additional supply of troops. Then only did the infantry advance, while the cavalry, amounting to twenty-four squadrons, proceeded round the bog, completely overlapping and flanking the Jacobite left wing. Meanwhile Schomberg the elder, in command of the Williamite centre, finding that his son and Douglas had the Jacobites well engaged, gave the word for the passage of the fords. Tyrconnell's regiment of foot-guards, with other Irish foot (only a few of them being armed with muskets,) occupied the ruined breastwork, fences and the ruined farm houses on the opposite side; having some cavalry drawn up beside the low hills close by, to support them. But the Williamites had a way for emptying these breastworks and clearing the bank for their fording parties. Fifty pieces of cannon swept the whole of the Irish position with their iron storm. Under cover of this tremendous fire, to which the Irish had not a single field-piece to reply, the van of the spendidly appointed infantry plunged into the stream. . . As they neared the southern bank the roar of cannon ceased—a breathless pause of suspense ensued. Then a wild cheer rung from the Irish lines; and such of the troops as had guns opened fire. The volley was utterly ineffective. The Dutch Guards were the first to the bank, where they instantly formed. Here they were charged by the Irish foot; but before the withering fire of the cool and skillful foreign veterans these raw levies were cut up instantly and driven from behind the fences.

SPLENDID CHARGE OF THE IRISH CAVALRY.

Now, however, was the time for Hamilton, at the head of the only Irish disciplined force on the field—the horse—to show what his men could do. The ground literally trembled beneath the onset of this splendid force. Irresistable as an avalanche, they struck the third battalion of Dutch Blues while yet in the stream, and hurled them back. The Hugenots were broken through, and the Brandenburghers turned and fled. Schomberg, on hearing that his friend Callemote, commander of the Hugenots was slain, rushed forward with *a chosen body of* the reserves, and "strove to rally the flying Hugenots." "Come on, come on, Messeers; behold your persecutors," he cried, pointing to the French infantry on the other bank. "Tyrconnell's Irish horse-guards . . . again broke through the Huguenots, cleaving Schomberg's head with two fearful sabre wounds, and lodging a bullet in his neck."

"At this time William, at the head of some 5,000 of the flower of his cavalry, . . . disengaged his wounded arm from its sling, and calling aloud to his troops to follow him, plunged boldly into the stream. William and his cavalry reached the opposite bank with difficulty; marshalling his force with great celerity, he rushed furiously on the Irish right flank, commanded by the young Duke of Berwick. Both bodies of horse were simultaneously under way. As they neared each other the excitement became choking, and above the thunder of the horses' feet on the sward, could be heard bursting from a hundred hearts the vehement passionate shouts of every troop officer, "Close—close up; for God's sake, closer, closer! On they came, careering like the whirlwind—and then! What a crash! Like a thunderbolt the Irish broke clear through the Williamites. The gazers beheld the white-plumed form of young Berwick at the head of the Irish horse, far into the middle of the Williamite mass; and soon, with a shout—a roar that rose above the din of battle—a frantic peal of exultation and vengeance, the Irish absolutely swept the Dutch and Enniskillen

cavalry down the slopes upon the river. The Williamite centre again crossed the stream, and William himself, having been reinforced by some troops of infantry, advanced once more and drove the Irish back to Sheep House, where they had made a stand. The Enniskillens turned and fled. William tried in vain to rally them, but to no purpose. The Dutch also fled, and it was only by the utmost exertions of Ginckel that the retreat did not become a panic." "Berwick and Sheldon pressed their foes with resistless energy—and down the lane leading to Sheep House went the Williamite horse and foot, with the Irish cavalry in full pursuit." But William's left having turned, the Irish right flank came up and occupied the lane before mentioned, while the Irish were driving William before them. The Irish, on returning to their former position, "found themselves assailed by a close and deadly fusilade" from the enemy. Ginckel fell on their rear, and William, at the head of his lately beaten troop fell on the right, and the "overborne, but not out-braved heroes retreated to Donore.

> The soldier's hope, the patriot's zeal,
> Forever dimmed, forever cross't.
> Oh! who can say what heroes feel,
> When all but life and honor 's lost.

The Irish army was defeated but not vanquished; the cowardly king whiningly regretted that all was over. The Irish officers would not believe in submission. They determined to retreat into Connaught and defend the line of the Shannon. How they succeeded is well known. Limerick and Athlone were the rallying points.

Another brave stand was made at Athlone and afterwards at Aughrim, where the Irish might have been successful, but for the jealousy of St. Ruth to Sarsfield. Limerick held out against William until September, 1691. Favorable conditions of capitulation were granted. Sarsfield, much to the grief of his brave garrison, accepted. The soldiers broke their swords and muskets and cried with very vexation. The treaty of Limerick "broke ere the ink wherewith 't was writ could dry" was agreed on. The English bigots and the Irish malignants would not

allow William to carry out its provisions. William was not the man to incur the loss of position or prestige by any mistaken generosity. The Irish soldiers, the "wild geese" went "to join the brigade in the wars far away." Brutal penal laws were enacted to extirpate the Irish Catholics.

Among the poor,
Or on the moor,
Were hid the pious and the true,
While traitor, knave
And recreant slave
Had riches, rank and retinue.

How differently the Irish Catholics would have treated their Protestant fellow-countrymen may be judged from the fact that the "Catholic" Parliament which met in Dublin in 1690, and which, by the way, was not wholly Catholic, affirmed the right of all persons to freedom of conscience, and toleration of all creeds.

The Irish Catholics could well say to their Protestant oppressor, in after years, in reference to these facts—

How fared it that season, our lords and our masters,
In the spring of our freedom, how fared it with you?
Did we trample your faith?
Did we mock your disasters?
We gave but his own to the loyal and true;
Ye had fallen; 'twas a season of tempest and troubles;
But against ye we drew not the knife ye had drawn;
In the war-field we met; but your prelates and nobles
Stood up mid the Senate in ermine and lawn.

"An event befel in the summer of 1692, which deserves notice," says Mitchel in his history of Ireland. "On a July morning, when the Protestant Parliament in Dublin was devising cunning oaths against transubstantiation and the Invocation of Saints to drive out its few Catholic members, Patrick Sarsfield and some of his comrades, just fresh from Limerick, had the deep satisfaction to meet King William on the glorious field of Steinkerk. Sarsfield and Berwick were then officers high in command under Marshal Luxembourg, when King William, at the head of a great allied force, attacked the French encampment. The attacking force was under the banners of

England, of the United Provinces, of Spain and of the Empire ; and it had all the advantage of effecting a surprise. The battle was long and bloody, and was finished by a splendid charge of French cavalry, among the foremost of whose leaders was the same glorious Sarsfield whose sword had once before driven back the same William from before the walls of Limerick. The English and their allies were entirely defeated in that battle, with a loss of about 10,000 men. Once more, and before very long, Sarsfield and King William were destined to meet again."

King James was at this time living in France, dependent on the bounty of Louis XIV, watching eagerly the result of the war between France and her allies. Reports of the unpopularity of William, in England, had reached the royal exile, and by the advice of his courtiers he issued a declaration, promising—the Stuarts were always great in promising—such reforms and improvements in administration as might be calculated to conciliate public opinion in England and turn the minds of the people of Great Britain so as to lead a way for his recall to the throne he had lost. This declaration was issued on the 17th of April, 1693, in which he promised a free pardon to all his rebellious subjects who had assisted to drive him out of his kingdom who should not now oppose his landing; that as soon as he was restored he would call a parliament ; that he would confirm all such laws passed during the usurpation as the Houses should present to him for confirmation ; that he would protect and defend the established church in all her possessions and privileges ; that he would not again violate the Test Act ; that he would leave it to the legislature to define the extent of his dispensing power ; and that he would maintain the act of settlement in Ireland. This declaration, then, was an appeal to his English subjects exclusively ; and to propitiate them, he promised to leave the Irish people wholly at their mercy—to undo all the measures in favor of religious liberty and common justice which had been enacted by the Irish parliament of 1689, and to leave the holders of the confiscated estates—his own deadly enemies in

Ireland—in undisturbed possession of all their spoils. It was sent to England and failed to produce the effect desired. In Ireland, however, it produced a great and very just indignation among the Irish soldiers and gentlemen who had lost all their possessions, and encountered so many perils to vindicate the rights of this cowardly and faithless king.

Serious discontent was manifested among the Irish regiments then serving in the Netherlands and on the frontiers of Germany and Italy at this act of base ingratitude, as useless as it was base; but the Irish troops in the army of St. Louis, the fierce exiles of Limerick, were at that time too busy in camp and field, and too keenly, eager to meet the English in battle, to pay much attention to anything coming from King James.

A portion of them soon had their wish. On the 19th of July, 1693, they were in presence again—on the banks of Landen, near Liege, in the Netherlands—a famous battle-ground. The French attacked the allies in an entrenched position. Fiercely they fought, and desperately were they repulsed. Three times were they driven back with fearful slaughter. At length Neerwinden being carried, the key of the position, the English and allied army gave way all along the line. The pursuit was furious and sanguinary, the allies fighting every step of the way. "At length," we again quote Mitchel, "the army of William arrived at the little river of Gette; and here the retreat was in danger of becoming a total route. Arms and standards were flung away, and multitudes of fugitives were choking up the fords and bridges of the river, or perishing in its waters, so fiercely did the victors press upon their rear. It was here that Patrick Sarsfield, Earl of Lucan, who had that day, as well as at Steinkirk, earned the admiration of the whole French army, received his death-shot at the head of his men. It was in a happy moment. Before he fell he could see the standards of England swept along by the tide of headlong flight, or trailing in the muddy waters of the Gette; he could see the scarlet ranks that he had once hurled back from the ramparts of Limerick, now rent and torn, fast

falling in their wild flight, while there was sent pealing after them the vengeful shout "*Remember Limerick!*"

The Catholics of Ireland may be said to disappear from history from the time of William of Orange till the era for volunteering, 1779, when England, wasted and impoverished by continual wars, was unable to defend her possession of Ireland from a foreign foe. Most of the choicest intellect and energy of the Irish race were now to be looked for at the courts of Versailles, Madrid and Vienna, or under the standards of France on every battle-field of Europe . . . while the ancient Irish nation lay in the miserable condition of utter nullity. The Protestant colony continued its efforts to vindicate its independence of the British Parliament, but with little success. At first sight it would seem strange that the English government should be jealous of any power which the ascendancy they had built up and fostered should acquire when that power so resolutely refused their Catholic fellow-countrymen any relaxation of the infamous penal code. They were taught to consider themselves as simply the humble instruments of their masters, the king and people of England, who were resolved to trample upon the presumptuous aspirations of their colony in Ireland in its efforts to assert legislative independence.

THE MASSACRE OF MULLAGHMAST

ABOUT the close of the Geraldine war this ever-memorable massacre occurred.

It is not, unhappily, the only tragedy of the kind to be met with in our blood-stained annals; yet it is of all the most vividly perpetuated in popular traditions. In 1577, Sir Francis Cosby, commanding the Queen's troops in Leix and Offaly, formed a diabolical plot for the permanent conquest of that district. Peace at the moment prevailed between the government and the inhabitants; but Cosby seemed to think that in *extirpation* lay the only effectual security for the crown. Feigning, however, great friendship, albeit suspicious of some few "evil disposed" persons, said not to be well-affected, he invited to a grand feast all the chief families of the territory; attendance thereat being a sort of test of amity. To this summons responded the flower of the Irish nobility in Leix and Offaly, with their kinsmen and friends—the O'Mores, O'Kellys, Lalors, O'Nolans, etc. The "banquet" —alas!—was prepared by Cosby in the great Rath or Fort of Mullach-Maisten, or Mullaghmast, in Kildare county. Into the great rath rode a many pleasant cavalcade that day; but none ever came forth that entered in. A gentleman named Lalor who had halted a little way off, had his suspicions in some way aroused. He noticed, it is said, that while many went into the rath, none were seen to reappear outside. Accordingly he desired his friends to remain behind while he advanced and reconnoitred. He entered cautiously. Inside, what a horrid spectacle met his sight! At the very entrance the dead bodies of some

of his slaughtered kinsmen! In an instant he himself was set upon; but drawing his sword, he hewed his way out of the fort and back to his friends, and they barely escaped with their lives to Dysart! He was the only Irishman, out of more than four hundred who entered the fort that day, that escaped with life! The invited guests were butchered to a man; one hundred and eighty of the O'Mores alone having thus perished.

The peasantry long earnestly believed and asserted that on the encircled rath of slaughter rain or dew never fell, and that the ghosts of the slain might be seen, and their groans distinctly heard "on the solemn midnight blast!"

O'er the Rath of Mullaghmast,
On the solemn midnight blast,
What bleeding spectres pass'd
With their gashed breasts bare!

Hast thou heard the fitful wail
That o'erloads the sullen gale
When the waning moon shines pale
O'er the cursed ground there?

Hark! hollow moans arise
Through the black tempestuous skies,
And curses, strife, and cries,
From the lone rath swell;

For bloody Sydney there
Nightly fills the lurid air
With the unholy pompous glare
Of the foul, deep hell.

* * * * * * *

False Sydney! knighthood's stain!
The trusting brave—in vain
Thy guests—ride o'er the plain
To thy dark cow'rd snare;

Flow'r of Offaly and Leix,
They have come thy board to grace—
Fools! to meet a faithless race,
Save with true swords bare.

While cup and song abound,
The triple lines surround
The closed and guarded mound,
In the night's dark noon.

Alas! too brave O'More,
E'er the revelry was o'er,
They have spill'd thy young heart's gore,
Snatch'd from love too soon!

At the feast, unarmed all,
Priest, bard, and chieftain fall
In the treacherous Saxon's hall,
O'er the bright wine bowl.

And now nightly round the board,
With unsheath'd and reeking sword,
Strides the cruel felon lord
Of the blood stain'd soul.

Since that hour the clouds that pass'd
O'er the Rath of Mullaghmast,
One tear have never cast
On the gore-dyed sod;

For the shower of crimson rain
That o'erflowed that fatal plain,
Cries aloud, and not in vain,
To the most high God!

A sword of vengeance tracked Cosby from that day. In Leix or Offaly after this terrible blow there was no raising a regular force; yet of the family thus murderously cut down, there remained one man who thenceforth lived but to avenge his slaughtered kindred. This was Ruari Oge O'More, the guerilla chief of Leix and Offaly, long the terror and the scourge of the Pale. While he lived none of Cosby's "undertakers" slept securely in the homes of the plundered race. Swooping down upon their castles and mansions, towns and settlements, Ruari became to them an Angel of Destruction. When they deemed him farthest away, his sword of vengeance was at hand. In the lurid glare of burning roof and blazing granary, they saw like a spectre from the rath, the face of an O'More; and, above the roar of the flames, the shrieks of victims, or the crash of falling battlements, they heard in the hoarse voice of an implacable avenger—"*Remember Mullaghmast!*"

And the sword of Ireland still was swift and strong to pursue the author of that bloody deed, and to strike him

and his race through two generations. One by one they met their doom—

In the lost battle
Borne down by the flying;
Where mingle's war's rattle
With the groans of the dying.

THE FIREBRAND OF THE MOUNTAINS.

On the bloody day of Glenmalure, when the red flag of England went down in the battle's hurricane, and Elizabeth's proud viceroy, Lord Grey de Wilton, and all the chivalry of the Pale were scattered and strewn like autumn leaves in the gale, Cosby of Mullaghmast fell in the rout, sent swiftly to eternal judgment with the brand of Cain upon his brow. A like doom, a fatality, tracked his children from generation to generation! They too perished by the sword or the battle-axe—the last of them, son and grandson, on one day, by the stroke of an avenging O'More*—until it may be questioned if there now exists a human being in whose veins runs the blood of the greatly infamous knight commander, Sir Francis Cosby.

The battle of Glenmalure was fought 25th of August, 1580. That magnificent defile, as I have already remarked, in the words of one of our historians, had long been for the patriots of Leinster "a fortress dedicated by nature to the defence of freedom;" and never had fortress of freedom a nobler soul to command its defense than he who now held Glenmalure for God and Ireland—Feach M'Hugh O'Byrne, of Ballinacor, called by the English "The Firebrand of the Mountains." In his time no sword was drawn for liberty in any corner of the Island, near or far, that his own good blade did not leap responsively from its scabbard to aid "the good old cause." Whether the tocsin was sounded in the north or in the south, it ever woke pealing echoes amidst the hills of Glenmalure. As in later years, Feach of Ballina-

* "Ouney, son of Ruari Oge O'More, slew Alexander and Francis Cosby, son and grandson of Cosby of Mullaghmast, and routed their troops with great slaughter, at Stradbally Bridge, 19th May, 1597."

cor was the most trusted and faithful of Hugh O'Neill's friends and allies, so was he now in arms stoutly battling for the Geraldine league. His son-in-law, Sir Francis Fitzgerald, and James Eustace, Viscount Baltinglass, had rallied what survived of the clansmen of Idrone, Offaly, and Leix, and had effected a junction with him, taking up strong positions in the passes of Slieveroe and Glenmalure. Lord Grey of Wilton arrived as lord lieutenant from England on the 12th August. Eager to signalize his advent to office by some brilliant achievement, he rejoiced greatly that so near at hand—within a day's march of Dublin Castle—an opportunity presented itself. Yes! He would measure swords with this wild chief of Glenmalure, who had so often defied the power of England. He would extinguish the "Firebrand of the Mountain," and plant the cross of St. George on the ruins of Ballinacor! So, assembling a right royal host, the haughty viceroy marched upon Glenmalure. The only accounts which we possess of the battle are those contained in letters written to England by Sir William Stanley and others of the lord lieutenant's officials and subordinates; so that we may be sure the truth is very scantily revealed. Lord Grey having arrived at the entrance to the glen, seems to have had no greater anxiety than to "hem in" the Irish. So he constructed a strong earthwork or entrenched camp at the mouth of the valley the more effectually to stop "escape!" It never once occurred to the vain-glorious English viceroy that it was he himself and his royal army that were to play the part of fugitives in the approaching scene! All being in readiness, Lord Grey gave the order of the advance; he and a group of courtier friends taking their place on a high ground commanding a full view up the valley, so that they might lose nothing of the gratifying spectacle anticipated. An ominous silence prevailed as the English regiments pushed their way into the glen. The courtiers waxed witty; they wondered whether the game had not "stolen away;" they sadly thought there would be "no sport;" or they hallooed right merrily to the troops to follow on and "unearth" the "old fox." After a while the way became

more and more tedious. "We were," says Sir William Stanley, "forced to slide sometimes three or four fathoms ere we could stay our feet;" the way being "full of stones, rocks, logs, and wood; in the bottom thereof a river full of loose stones which we were driven to cross divers times." At length it seemed good to Feach M'Hugh O'Byrne to declare that the time had come for action. Then from the forest-clad mountain sides there burst forth a wild shout whereat many of the jesting courtiers turned pale; and a storm of bullets assailed the entangled English legions. As yet the foe was unseen; but his execution was disastrous. The English troops broke into disorder. Lord Grey, furious and distracted, ordered up the reserves; but now Feach passed the word along the Irish lines to charge the foe. Like the torrents of winter pouring down those hills, down swept the Irish force from every side upon the struggling mass below. Vain was all effort to wrestle against such a furious charge. From the very first it became a pursuit. How to escape was now each castle courtier's wild endeavor. Discipline was utterly cast aside in the panic rout! Lord Grey and a few attendants fled early, and by fleet horses saved themselves; but of all the brilliant host the viceroy had led out of Dublin a few days before, there returned but a few shattered companies to tell the tale of disaster, and to surround with new terrors the name of Feach M'Hugh, the "Firebrand of the Mountains."

The account of this atrocious and bloody deed has been selected as a sample of many similar cowardly "surprises" perpetrated by English Lord Deputies in Ireland, under various reigns. The thrilling narrative is taken from Sullivan's "Story of Ireland."

ABSENTEEISM.

WHILE we have now recounted the invasions, confiscations and forfeitures which marked the first ages of England's misrule in Ireland, the giant evil of absenteeism which springs directly from an alien ownership of the soil acquired by fraud and robbery demands some attention, without which the story of the causes of Irish pauperism and famine would be incomplete indeed.

"Previously to the Act of Union," says Lady Morgan, "absenteeism, though encouraged by the geographical position of the country, and promoted by some inveterate habits derived from ancient abuse, was principally confined among the native Irish, to a few individuals, whose ill-understood vanity tempted them to seek for a consequence abroad, which is ever denied to the unconnected strangers, a consequence which no extravagant expense can purchase. With few exceptions, therefore, the malady was confined to the great English proprietors of forfeited estates, whose numbers must, in the progress of events, have been diminished by the dissipations inseparable from unbounded wealth, and the growth of commercial and manufactural fortunes. It might in some cases, indeed, be both a vice and a ridicule in the absent; but had the nation in other respects been well used and well governed, it would have been of no serious evil to those who remained at home, but the Act of Union, whatever may be its other operations, at once converted a local disease into a national pestilence. The center of business and of pleasure, the mart of promotion, and the fountain of favor were by this one fatal act at once removed into a

foreign land; ambition, avarice, dissipation and refinement, all combined to seduce the upper classes into a desertion of their homes and country; and as each succeeding ornament of the Irish capital abandoned his hotel, as each influential landlord quitted his castle in the country, or his mansion in the city, a new race of vulgar upstarts, of uneducated and capricious despots, usurped their place, spreading a barbarous *morgue* over the once elegant society of the metropolis, and banishing peace and security from the mountain and the plain. . . . . In the political prospect of Ireland, the eye of philosophy and philanthrophy turns on every side in search of a principle of regeneration, and turns in vain. On every side a circle of recurring cause and effect, like the mystic emblem of the Egyptians, points to an eternity of woe, and to endless cycles of misgovernment and resistance. As long as the actual system continues,—as long as every cause is forced to concur in rendering Ireland uninhabitable, so long will it be impossible to organize any plan for civilizing, tranquilizing and enriching the country. It is an empty and an idle boast in the British House of Commons, that it devotes successive nights to the debating of Irish affairs, so long as the religious divisions of the people, and pro-consular government founded upon that division, are to be recognized as sound policy or Christian charity. The half measures which have hitherto been adopted, far from proving beneficial, and composing the hostility of hostile factions, have served only to increase discontent and disarm inquiry. Nor can the ministers be entitled to any praise for generosity who dare not in the first place be just. In spite, therefore, of all their professions of zeal and compassion for the national distress—in spite of all their parliamentary tamperings with the national abuses, they must still remain answerable for the greater part of the absenteeship, which they hold up as the great ill over which they have no control, and for the existence of which they imagine themselves not responsible."—Absenteeism, by Lady Morgan, from pp. 152 to 158.

"The British people should also learn that the absence

of the ancient nobles and protecting aristocracy of Ireland, drawn away by the Union from their demesnes and tenantry, to the seat of legislation, and replaced only by the grasping hands and arbitrary sway of upstart deputies—increases in proportion with the miseries and turbulence of the lower orders, and that the luxuriant vegetation which clothes that capacious Island has through the same causes become only a harbinger of want, or the forbidden fruit of famished peasantry." Barrington's Hist. Anecdotes.

"If I had hopes to get a law passed to burn every clergyman who does not reside, to hang every gentleman and behead every nobleman, who desert their country for their amusement, I would even be content to return to the world and solicit votes for it; but without taking up the burden of life again, I should feel joy in my grave to have their estates saddled with a constant tax for absence. How lightly soever gentlemen regard this desertion of their native soil, it is certainly a crime no good or great man can be guilty of; and the officer who quits his quarters, or the sailor who forsakes his ship, does not better deserve to be mulcted in his pay than they do. I assure you, dear Tom, I could name crowds of our Irish gentlemen, that would double their estates if they would live on them, and ditch them, and drain them, and build them, and plant them, with half the skill and application of a rich, sensible farmer in England; nay, I know some of them that are so situated that they would quadruple their rents in some years, if they would build towns and set up manufactures on them with proper care."—Dialogue between Dean Swift and Thomas Prior.

If absenteeism be an evil to any nation, must it not be a peculiar one to Ireland? If originating in dire misrule in 1172, Henry II divided the Island into ten cantonments, which he granted to ten of his Anglo-Norman followers, to the exclusion of the native Irish (Facts on Ireland, p. 7); if he made eight counties palatine, which created continued warfare, and such infamy, that, as Sir John Davies states, "the weaker had no remedy against the stronger, and no man could enjoy his life, his

wife, his lands, or his goods in safety, if a mightier than himself had a mind to take them from him;" if "on the death of the Earl of Pembroke, son-in-law of Strongbow, and on the decease of his son, his great possessions in Ireland became the property of five females, each of whom had a county; and that they married five noblemen, who had great possessions in England, and consequently resided there, must we not add with the author of "Facts" that, now began the serious mischief arising from absentees, a mischief that unfortunately continues to the present day, and which may be assigned as one of the principal causes of the poverty and degraded condition of the people.

"The cause of absentee lords was that the leaders of the old Irish refused obedience to English laws, and that the Earl of Norfolk, who was entitled to the lordship of Carlow (by English law), employed one of the Cavanaughs as his steward, who became master of the entire county."—Facts, p. 11.

"The result of Lord Mortimer becoming an absentee and leaving Leix and Offaly to be managed by Lisah was that the latter contrived to keep them to himself, and that his family kept them for centuries."—Finglas MS.

"Great mischief attended the absence in England of the great proprietors of the land in Ireland, and that from the time of King John no English king had been in the country, nor had any of the king's sons been in Ireland."—Facts, p 13. Must we not feel that absenteeism has been a peculiar grievance to Ireland? "King Richard II considered the absence of the landed proprietors of Ireland as the principal cause of the degenerate state of the country, and had an act passed directing all absentees to return to Ireland on pain of forfeiting two-thirds of the profits of their lands."—Ibid, p. 15.

In the reign of Philip and Mary, Offaly, so long possessed by the O'Mores, was divided into two shires, King's and Queen's counties, in consequence of the proprietors being absentees. Many of the ancient nobility and gentry followed James II into exile, quitting their native country, severing the ties of nature and friendship

to follow the fortunes of a fugitive prince to whom they had sworn allegiance. Some of the ablest generals in France, Spain and Austria were exiles from Ireland. From 1613 to 1652 the Catholic property in Ireland was reduced one-fifth, according to Leland, but in 1693, in consequence of their adherence to James, it was nearly all transferred to Protestants who were mostly absentees. —Leland, Vol. 3, p. 574.

Between 1640 and 1652, so great was the misery caused by forfeitures and absentees, that a barrel of wheat which sold in the former year at 12s. was 50s. in the latter; that the stock of cattle which, in 1640 was valued at £4,000,000, in 1652 was not worth £400,000; that 8,000,000 acres of land which would sell in 1640 for £1 per acre, in 1652 would not bring one-eighth of that amount (Petty's Pol. Anatomy); and that about the same time 7,800,000 acres were set out to purchasers and adventurers. (Down Survey). In 1682, Richard Lawrence, in his "True Interest of Ireland Considered," states that the sums remitted to absentees were £157,464. Battersby, in his "Repealers Manual," calculates the amount of the absentee drain at £4,650,000. The census of 1871, the last taken, gives the number of absentee landlords at 2,973, owning 5,129,169 acres, and the rateable valuation for taxation at £2,470,816, which at a fair valuation for rental would give over £6,000,000, or the annual drain from absentees over *thirty millions of dollars per annum.*

The American Declaration of Independence was more far-reaching in its effects, and embraced a larger area and a greater population than its authors and signers ever supposed. France was aroused, and fifteen years afterward "waded through slaughter" to liberty. Ireland, ever responsive to every movement in favor of freedom, and ever ready to make an opportunity of England's difficulty, determined to unbind the chains in which England had bound her. Accordingly we find that she was active in her sympathy with America, for in 1777 a resolution introduced by Mr. Daly, and calling on the King to discontinue the war against America, passed the Irish House of Commons. Nor was her sympathy confined to resolutions

alone. Material aid was given, and the pages of the muster-roll of the Continental army are as abundant in Celtic names as that of the Union armies of later days, in comparison to the numbers enrolled.

While England was engaged in war with France and America, Ireland was busy organizing a volunteer force which was destined to play a very important part in the history of after years. The English, or Government party in the Irish Parliament, attempted to thwart the organization of the volunteer force, but the patriotic party under Grattan, who had entered Parliament a few years before under the patronage of Charlemont, was able to defeat all schemes to substitute a militia for the volunteers. That the Anglo-Irish faction distrusted the volunteers is evident, from the fact that although the act creating the force was passed in 1777, it was not until 1779, and then very reluctantly, that they were furnished with arms by the government. The volunteer force at first consisted exclusively of Protestants, or if there were Catholics in the ranks they were there by connivance. The spirit of patriotism displayed by the Irish Catholics on this occasion is beyond all praise; excluded themselves from the privilege of bearing arms, they contributed largely to the equipment of the Protestant volunteers. The Catholics of Limerick alone subscribed £800 for this purpose—a large sum for that period. This liberality and patriotism was not lost on the original volunteers, and soon the Catholics were allowed to organize independent companies, which they set about with right good will. The national army was, however, only a means to an end. The Patriot Irish party not only resolved that all restrictions on Irish Catholics should be removed, but that the legislature and the judiciary of Ireland should be free and independent.

In the Parliament of 1779 an amendment to the address in answer to the King's speech was carried without a division, demanding, in no equivocal tones, that "free trade" should be granted to Ireland. The next day the speaker, accompanied by Grattan, Burgh, Daly and other members of the Patriotic party, took the amended address to the Lord Lieutenant. "The streets," says McGee,

"were lined with volunteers commanded in person by the Duke of Leinster, who presented arms to the patriotic Commons as they passed." On the following day the house passed a vote of thanks to the volunteers for their "exertions in defense of their country." The English at first refused to make any concessions, but on the adoption of Grattan's amendment to the supply-bill, that "at this time it is inexpedient to grant new taxes," by a vote of 170 to 47, the concessions demanded were reluctantly made, and thus was free trade established in Ireland by the patriotism of the Irish volunteers and the firmness of the Irish Parliament led by Grattan. Mr. Pitt was obliged to send a circular letter to the English manufacturing towns, assuring them that the concessions made to the Irish were of little practical value, which, of course, was not true. But Grattan and his compatriots were not satisfied with free trade alone; they determined to have a free Paliament, too, and on the 19th of April, 1780, moved "that the King, Lords and Commons of Ireland are the only power competent to enact laws to bind Ireland." The motion was supported by Burgh and Yelverton; but Flood and Daly were for delay, while others resisted the motion, and an amendment by the government that, "there being an equivalent resolution already on the journals of the House," a new resolution was necessary, was carried by 136 to 79. The result, however, was gratifying to Grattan.

The attempt of the government to force on the Irish parliament the perpetual Mutiny act, called the services of the volunteers into requisition once again. Meetings were held throughout the country, "and significant addresses presented to Grattan, Flood and Charlemont." Grattan, in his place in parliament, said that he would oppose the bill with all his might, and that if it was enacted he and his friends would withdraw from parliament and appeal to the country. The government did not dare to press the bill during that session. Parliament was not assembled again till October, 1781. In the meantime, Lord Carlisle had succeeded Buckingham as Viceroy, and the English, true to their old policy, were lavish in the

distribution of bribes in the way of titles and places. The Mutiny Bill was resisted with great spirit by Grattan. The news of the surrender of Cornwallis disarranged the plans of the government. The volunteers held a convention at Dungannon in February, 1782. Resolutions were unanimously adopted declaring it unconstitutional, illegal, and a grievance for any body of men "other than the King, Lords and Commons of Ireland" to claim the right to make laws for their country. These resolutions—the declaration of Irish Rights—were ratified with surprising unanimity by the various public bodies throughout the Island. On the 16th of April, 1782, Grattan moved the following amendment to a motion by Mr. Ponsonby:

"That the kingdom of Ireland is a distinct kingdom, with a Parliament of her own, the sole legislature thereof; that there is no body of men competent to make laws to bind the nation but the King, Lords and Commons of Ireland, nor any Parliament which hath any authority or power of any sort whatever in this country, save only the Parliament of Ireland," etc.

Mr. Brownlow, the member from Armagh, seconded the amendment, which was carried by a unanimous vote, and "after centuries of oppression," says Sir Jonah Barrington, "Ireland declared herself an independent nation." The patriot pens of Swift, Molyneux and Lucas, the determination of the "volunteers of '82," and the splendid genius and lofty patriotism of Grattan had triumphed. "I found Ireland on her knees," said Grattan. "I watched over her with fraternal solicitude; I have traced her progress from injury to arms, and from arms to liberty."

"Manufacture, trade and commerce," says Mr. Sullivan, "developed to a greater extent in ten years of native rule than they had done in the previous *one hundred* under English mastery." The Irish Parliament set about reforming the laws relating to suffrage. It was sought to disfranchise the "rotten boroughs"; this the English government resisted, and in 1800 they had reason to congratulate themselves on the wisdom of their refusal.

As the struggle of the American colonies inspired

Grattan and his friends to measures "peacable, legal and constitutional," for the achievement of the legislative independense of Ireland, so the more passionate, the bolder, and bloodier French revolution inspired many of the more fiery spirits of Ireland to more republican and revolutionary principles. Of these spirits the ablest, the boldest and most liberal was Theobald Wolf Tone—"Gallant Tone." His first measures tended to bring about a union of all classes, creeds and sects in an effort to accomplish by *legal* measures parliamentary reform and the enfranchisement of Catholics. The first association of this kind was formed in *Belfast*, and soon branch organizations were established in every town in Ireland. The association was called the Society of United Irishmen, and no pains were spared by the members to enlarge the organization or to inculcate the doctrines for which it was established.

The persecution by the government of some of its most active members, compelled the United Irish Association to become an oath-bound and secret body. The society grew to great proportions. About half a million of men were soon enrolled. The leaders established communications with France, and for a time it seemed as if the United Irishmen would succeed in their purpose by other than "legal, peaceable and constitutional" means. The Insurrection Act, making it a capital offense to administer the United Irish Society oath was passed in 1796. Eighty thousand men were quartered in Ireland to suppress the rebellion should it take place. Supreme control of the country was given to the military authorities. The Orange soldiers were quartered in the Catholic districts, and English soldiers in the Presbyterian districts of Ulster. Suspected parties were brought before the military tribunals, and on the testimony of perjured informers were condemned and executed. The lash, the gallows, and drum-head court-martial were the main support of British law in Ireland.

Lord Holland asserts "that the people of Ireland were driven to resistance (which possibly they meditated before) by the free quarters and excesses of the soldiery,

which were such as are not permitted in civilized warfare, even in an enemy's country. Dr. Dickson, Lord Bishop of Down and Connor," continues Lord Holland, "assured me that he had seen ....wives and daughters exposed to every species of indignity, brutality and outrage, from which neither his (the bishop's) remonstrances nor those of other Protestant gentlemen could rescue them." Sir John Moore, referring to these brutalities, declared that if he were an Irishman he would be a rebel.

The Supreme Council of the Irish Society was seized at the house of Oliver Bond in March, 1798. The papers, muster rolls, etc., were taken, and thus the government became acquainted with all the plans of the society, its membership and policy. The Sheareses, Lord Edward and Doctor Lawless, took charge of the affairs of the organization, and the government bent all their energies to effect their capture.

The 23d of May had been fixed for the day of the rising, and on the 18th of that month Lord Edward was captured by Major Sirr, after a deadly struggle, in which he had mortally wounded several of the party. Lord Edward lingered until the 4th of June. The Sheareses were captured on the 21st of May, and were executed on the 14th of July following. The leaders being now removed, the United Irishmen were helpless. Abortive risings occurred in Antrim, Down, Meath, Kildare and Dublin, but the insurgents were without leaders or organization, and the rebellion—if such it can be called—was speedily and bloodily quelled. The French expedition, under Humbert came too late, and after having advanced into Mayo was compelled to surrender. The later and smaller expeditions were equally unsuccessful. Wolf Tone was captured on board a French vessel, tried and executed. The savage soldiery were free to wreak their vengeance on the unprotected peasantry.

There was one part of Ireland, however, which, although not permeated to any great extent by the doctrines of the United Irishmen, could illy bear the taunts, the insults and the brutalities of the savage soldiery. The brave men of Wexford would die in defense of the honor

of their wives and sweethearts, even though they should receive no aid from any other portion of the country.

"They rose in dark and evil days,
To right their native land,
And kindled *there* a living blaze
That nothing can withstand."

"And failing, though they nobly fought, they have shown what Irishmen might do were they united, resolved and brave as they were. The North Cork militia have won the unenviable notoriety of being the most savage, fiendish and devilishly inspired of all the brutal English soldiery of '98. The cowardly imps of Satan were no sooner quartered on the people of Wexford than they set about forming Orange lodges. The "gentry" of the country—that is, the petty landlords—the vampires who continue to suck the life-blood of the people of Ireland—readily fraternized with the militia. Men were arrested and put to death on the most trivial pretext. The bridge, public squares, and market-places were the scenes of the most brutal and cowardly murders. At length, when twenty-eight men were shot down at Carmen, and twenty-four men at Dunlavin, without the form of trial, patience ceased to be a virtue. Father John Murphy, whose chapel and house were burned down on the night of the 26th of May, called on the people of Wexford to rise up and defend their homes. The people flocked to the brave priest's standard, attacked the militia at Camolin, killed the lieutenant and one soldier. The others fled like the cowardly scoundrels that they were. Father Murphy, with his little band, retired to take a defensive position on Oulart hill, where he was joined by many of the peasants. Here, on the next day, he was attacked by the Shilmalier Yeomen, under Col. LeHunte, and a detachment of the North Cork militia, under Col. Foote. The insurgents took shelter behind a hedge, and as the yeomen and militia advanced quite close to their position, a small body of the rebels appeared on either flank. This manœuvre had the desired effect of drawing the fire of the enemy, and before they had time to reload, the Wexford men fell upon and cut them to pieces. Only

half a dozen of the North Cork, including the Colonel, escaped. The yeomen fled without coming into action, and on their retreat, perpetrated the most frightful outrages on innocent and defenceless women and children.

Having secured the arms at Camolin, Ferns, and other places, Father Murphy next determined to attack Enniscorthy. His army at this time amounted to 7,000 men although all were not well armed. The town was defended by a large and well armed force but the insurgents flushed with their victory at Oulart Hill captured the town after a determined struggle. The enemy fled to Wexford but not until they made an attempt to murder the prisoners in the jail; the warden however had fled with the keys, and so they were balked in their murderous object. The town of Gorey surrendered to the insurgents about the same time. The town of Wexford became the rallying point for the enemy. Mr. Colclough and Mr. Fitzgerald, who with Bagenal Harvey and other gentlemen were imprisoned in Wexford on suspicion, were sent to Vinegar Hill to treat with the insurgents who had encamped at that point. Mr. Colclough was retained and Mr. Fitzgerald sent back to inform the English commander at Wexford that so far were they from proposing to surrender, that they would immediately attack Wexford itself. The garrison took fright at this message and immediately evacuated the town.

Mr. Bagenal Harvey was made commander-in-chief of the insurgent army, but after the battle of Ross was retired from that position, and became president of a council or directory which sat in Wexford and directed the operations of the insurgent army.

An expedition under Gen. Faucett, who set out from Dungannon at the head of a considerable force, was fallen on at "Three Rock," and three howziters were captured by the insurgents besides many prisoners, and more than a hundred of the enemy were left dead on the field. Three encampments were now formed, one at Vinegar Hill, under the command of Fathers Kearns and Clinch, and Messrs. Fitzgerald, Redmond, and Doyle; the Carrickbyrne camp, commanded by Bagnal Harvey

and Father Roche, and the camp at Carrigrua by Fathers Michael and John Murphy, Esmond Kyan, and Mr. Perry, of Inch. The last force marched toward Gorey and were met by Gen. Loftus at the head of 1,500 men, whom they forced back into the town. Being reinforced soon after by troops from Dublin under Col. Walpole, he set out on the 4th of June to break up the camp at Carrigrua, but the force fell into an ambuscade at Tubberneering. Walpole was killed, his ordinance and regimental flags captured, and the town of Gorey fell into the hands of of the insurgents. The division of the insurgents at Vinegar Hill captured Newtownbarry and drove out its garrison of 800 men under Col. L'Estrange, but instead of following up their victory the insurgents, imbibed too freely of the refreshments, were attacked in turn and 400 of their number slain. A similar fate betook the insurgents at New Ross. They had captured the town and the garrison under Gen. Johnston, who was about retreating to Kilkenny, but not being pursued he judged rightly that the victors were indulging in a carouse, returned and fell on them in the midst of their revels, and drove them out of the town with great slaughter. An attack on Arklow was defeated by Gen. Needham. Father Michael Murphy was slain and Esmond Kyan seriously wounded. It is said that 1,500 of the insurgents lost their lives in this battle. The defeated party retired to Vinegar Hill, which was now surrounded on all sides by an army of 20,000 men under the command of Lake, Wilford, Dundas, and Johnson. Sir John Moore was prevented from joining this army by the insurgents at Carrigrua, with whom he had a "pretty sharp action." After about an hour's desperate fighting the insurgents broke and fled by the unguarded side of the hill, and the Wexford rebellion was broken. There was no concert of action on the part of the neighboring counties, the Wexford men, and a few straggling bands from Wicklow and Kildare, had to bear the whole brunt of battle, yet it took an army of 50,000 men to put down the insurrection in a single county. Had there been organization and discipline among the brave peasantry they might at least

have held out until aid was obtained from France or the other provinces.

The rest of the story is shortly told. After trying in vain to rally the rebels, Bagenal Harvey and Father Roche surrendered. Grogan and Colclough were taken prisoners and all were beheaded. Esmond Kyan was arrested and instantly put to death, and the other leaders fled for safety. Many of them were afterwards arrested and summarily dealt with, and the last armed rebellion of Ireland against the rule of England was ended.

NINETY-EIGHT TO FORTY-EIGHT.

THE ACT OF UNION.

It was on the first day of January, 1801, at the hour of noon, that the imperial *United Standard*, mounted on the Bedford tower in Dublin castle, and the guns of the royal salute battery in the Phœnix Park, announced to bleeding, prostrate, weeping Ireland that her independence was no more, that her guilt-stained parliament had done its hateful and suicidal work, and that the union of Great Britain and Ireland was now complete and inseparable, so far, at least, as English power and Irish treachery could effect to seal and crown the bond.

The suppression of the rebellion of 1798 was followed by a period of prostration and terror throughout Ireland, which afforded to the English minister, Pitt, the coveted opportunity to consolidate the legislative power of the two countries, or in other words, to abolish the Irish parliament and thereby extinguish the last trace of Ireland's independence. Indeed, it is plain from the records and state papers of this period, since published, that the rebellion itself was fomented and encouraged by the British ministry and its adroit and unscrupulous agent, Castlereagh. The proofs of this will be referred to later on.

During the progress of the machination and plottings to bring about the *Act of Union*, the Habeas Corpus act was suspended, and with it all forms of constitutional freedom practically abolished in Ireland. Martial law had been proclaimed at the outbreak of the rebellion. There was no longer protection for life or property; law furnished

no security, and public opinion was effectually stifled. The press was "muzzled," and public meetings, even when legally convened by sheriffs and magistrates, were dispersed by military violence. The fact of martial law alone suffices to demonstrate the system of terrorism and violence under cover of which the baleful measure was successfully carried through the Irish Houses of Parliament. But this was not the only agency. Another was employed which has seldom proved ineffective when England had an end to gain :—the potential influence of gold and titles, of bribery and patronage.

The corruption resorted to by the English Government to carry the Act of Union, is the most stupendous example of wholesale bribery presented in the annals of any nation.

Three millions of pounds sterling, $15,000,000, is the accepted estimate of the "pecuniary consideration" paid in exchange for votes in Parliament in favor of the Union; besides this, peerages, judgeships, appointments in the army and navy, the sanctuary of law, and even the temples of religion were in like manner the subject of traffic for the same nefarious end.

It should be well understood that the Irish Parliaments were only in a very limited sense representative bodies. Up to the years 1792–3, the Catholics of Ireland were still subject to the most irksome and galling features of the penal code; though composing four-fifths of the population, they were disfranchised ; the liberal professions were not open to any of their faith, and none save the humblest and most menial public employments were accessible to them.

The concessions extorted from the fears of Great Britain in 1793 made it possible for a Catholic to acquire the elective franchise, but the right to sit in Parliament was denied him.

Overtures were made to win over the support of the Catholics of Ireland to the Act of Union, and the memoirs and correspondence of Lord Castlereagh shows that the boon of Catholic emancipation was offered by the British premier in return for this support. But even with this alluring bait held out to them, the great body of the Cath-

olics loyally adhered to the cause of Irish legislative independence. In the end the Minister accomplished his aim, but he succeeded solely by the employment of the most flagitious means and by carrying out the most gigantic system of bribery and corruption shown in Parliamentary annals.

As Daniel O'Connell in his "Memoir on Ireland," 2d ed., p. 28, says: "The Act of Union was not a bargain or agreement. It had its origin in and was carried by force, fraud, terror, torture and corruption. It has to this hour no binding power but what it derives from force. It is still a mere name. The countries are not united. The Irish are still treated as 'aliens' in blood and in religion. Thus was the legislative independence of Ireland extinguished. Thus was the greatest crime ever perpetrated by the English Government upon Ireland consummated."

We proceed to show in a few extracts what contemporaneous opinion expressed in regard to this measure.

Grattan, Saurin, Plunkett, Bushe, Curran, spoke in no equivocal terms on the subject. "Sir," said Plunkett in addressing the Speaker of the Irish House of Commons, "I, in the most express terms, deny the competency of Parliament to do this act; I warn you, do not dare to lay your hands on the constitution. I tell you, that if, circumstanced as you are, you pass this act, it will be a *mere nullity, and no man in Ireland will be bound to obey it.* I make the assertion deliberately; I repeat it; I call on any man who hears me to take down my words. You have not been elected for this purpose." "Yourselves you may extinguish, but Parliament you cannot extinguish. It is enthroned in the hearts of the people—it is enshrined in the Sanctuary of the Constitution—it is as immortal as the Island which it protects."

The words of Saurin are equally significant. "If," said he, "a legislative union should be so forced upon this country against the will of its inhabitants, it would be a *nullity*, and resistance would be a struggle against *usurpation*, and not a resistance against law."

Grattan, the foremost as he was incomparably the most

eloquent champion of Irish rights and legislative independence, cited authorities without number in support of his proposition that the Irish Parliament was not *competent* to transfer the legislative authority to the people of another country. Puffendorf, Grotius, Locke, Junius, Sir Joseph Jekeyl, Bolingbroke, and other noted authorities in Civil and Parliamentary law, were quoted by Mr. Grattan in support of his position. It is embarrassing to discriminate between the eloquent and vehement passages in this great orator's anti-Union speeches for the purpose of giving a single extract. This may serve as an illustration :

"The cry of disaffection," said he in his final address, "will not, in the end, avail against the principles of liberty."

Identification is a solid and imperial maxim, necessary for the preservation of freedom, necessary for that of empire; but without union of hearts—with a separate government and without a separate parliament, identification is extinction, is dishonor, is conquest—not identification.

"Yet I do not give up the country: I, Sir, see her in a swoon, but she is not dead; though in her tomb she lies helpless and motionless, still there is on her lips a spirit of life, and on her cheeks a glow of beauty.

> "Thou art not conquered; beauty's ensign yet
> Is crimson in thy lips and on thy cheeks,
> And death's pale flag is not advanced there."

"While a plank of the vessel sticks together, I will not leave her. Let the courtier present his flimsy sail, and carry the light bark of his faith with every new breath of wind ; I will remain anchored here with fidelity to the fortunes of my country—faithful to her freedom, faithful to her fall."

In his "Rise and Fall of the Irish Nation," Sir Jonah Barrington presents the ghastly and repulsive details of the corruption by which the fatal measure was finally carried by the meagre majority of *eight*, and Ireland thereby fell from "the majesty of a nation to the degradation of a province."

We have dwelt thus long and in detail on this event in Irish history, because it is important to make clear to the reader unfamiliar with these facts, the circumstances under which the Parliamentary independence of Ireland was wrested from her. Nay, it is all the more important, since the chief interest in the subsequent struggles and agitation centers around the efforts that were made, and are still in progress to win back her lost rights and independence.

The long struggle maintained for the "Repeal of the Union," the efforts to secure "Home Rule," the existing agitation for Land Reform and Tenant Rights, all point to the same inevitable result—the restoration at least of the Native Parliament which was surrendered in 1801.

CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION.

Ireland recovered slowly from the prostration succeeding the fatal period of '98, and the degredation which followed the union of the two kingdoms.

The abortive uprising of 1803 under the leadership of the gallant and unfortunate Emmet, crushed anew for a time all hope of national freedom; indeed the chains were rivited only the more firmly around the form of the prostrate, bleeding country—chains forged by English rule and Irish treachery. Life alone remained, though the people of Ireland were smote down into the dust; they hardly dared to breathe, still less, give voice to their wail of bitter woe and pain.

It was only when the question of Catholic Emancipation found an exponent and a champion in Daniel O'Connell, that Ireland gave signs of national life and vitality.

Catholic Ireland had long been crushed and trodden down.

It fell with the death of Owen Roe O'Neill and the surrender of the confederate chieftains and armies to Cromwell in 1652; and the last spark of life seemed gone out forever when Sarsfield folded the green flag at Limerick and carried it with his gallant brigades to waive it again on foreign fields.

Throughout the long and gloomy interval—illuminated

by no ray of hope, no gleam of promise—it seemed as if the dirge which was suggested by another national calamity were indeed a prophecy:

"O Ireland! my country, the hour
Of thy pride and thy splendor is past;
The chain that was spurned in thy moment of power,
Hangs heavy around thee at last;
There are marks in the fate of each clime,
There are turns in the fortunes of men;
But the changes of realms and the chances of time,
Can never restore thee again.

"Thy riches, with taunts shall be taken,
Thy valor, with coldness repaid;
And of millions, who see thee forsaken,
Not one shall stand forth in thy aid.
In the nations thy place is left void,
Thou art lost in the list of the free,
Even realms by the plague or spoiler destroyed
May revive; but no hope is for thee."

The agitation which O'Connell may be said to have initiated, and the great organization which he founded, resulted, as all know, in wresting Catholic emancipation from an unwilling minister and a hostile King. This was an achievement of the mightiest import; nor were its effects confined to Ireland. It liberated English and Scotch, as well as the Irish Catholics.

At this distant day, and in the atmosphere of liberality and unfettered religious freedom in which we live, there are few who recall the momentous consequences which the concession of this long-denied boon effected in the public affairs of Great Britain and Ireland—indeed, we might add of Europe also. It electrified the Continent, and soon distant America shared the famous enthusiasm which moved the Old World, and rejoiced in the emancipation of the Catholics of the British Empire.

What Irishman can recall without emotion the thrilling scenes of the Clare election; and the tumultuous popular outbursts that everywhere greeted O'Connell and his co-laborers? It would not be just to refer to this period without alluding to the effective aid given to the cause of Catholic emancipation by the ecclesiastical

Junius—the famous "J. K. L."—Dr. Doyle, bishop of Kildare and Leighlin; and by the vigorous pen of "*Hierophilos*," whose later well known title of the "Lion of the Fold of Juda" distinguishes him as the venerated patriarch of the Irish church—the scholar, poet, controversialist, theologian, and throughout his memorable career the patriot-prelate, Most Rev. John MacHale, Archbishop of Tuam.

THE REPEAL OF THE UNION.

Emancipation won; the campaign for the repeal of the Union was speedily initiated. The question of Catholic emancipation had aroused the nation from its apathy and stirred it into life; the prospect of a repeal of the hated union enkindled a flame which soon encircled and swept over the whole island as by the force of a whirlwind. The entire country became, as it were, one vast repeal camp. Happily the zeal of Father Matthew—the great Apostle of Temperance—Ireland's truest benefactor in modern days—had so influenced and transformed the Irish masses, that the great repeal movement exhibited a character for order and sobriety which was scarcely less striking and significant than the great movement itself. Europe was moved to wonder and admiration by the spectacle of a people thus united, and showing such remarkable powers of self-restraint and self-control.

The resolute, compact and formidable public demonstrations in Ireland during the agitation for the repeal of the Union have scarcely been paralleled in any country before or since. The attendance at the celebrated "monster meetings" well-nigh surpass belief, and the estimates given and accepted at the time, seem, at best, extravagant.

At Mallow, Nenagh, Cashel, Mullaghmast, Skibbereen and Cork, 400,000 to 500,000 at each meeting!

The monster meeting at the historic hill of Tara, August 15, 1843, is said to have included 750,000 persons.

The *London Times* gave an estimate of 1,000,000 as the attendance.

These mighty manifestations of popular power and of

popular confidence in O'Connell, who became the idol of the people—the uncrowned king of Ireland—prove the majesty and force of a united public opinion.

Ireland became the chief centre and focus of the English—nay, even of European, attention. Ireland, Irish affairs, and the Irish agitation, gave the British ministry more concern and solicitude than did the foreign policy of the Empire and of the rest of the continent.

Parliament was occupied mainly with Irish questions; the press teemed with discussions and disquisitions on the *pros and cons* of repeal, and public opinion was monopolized and divided on it.

There is a significant lesson in the popular agitation of those days which has evidently impressed the leaders of the present great movement in Ireland; and the warnings and teachings of O'Connell seem destined to bear fruit. *First of all*, there should be thorough, and perfect union, before which brawling factions must give way; and there must be solidarity of purpose in the pursuit of just ends by lawful and practicable means.

Secondly, there is need of a leader who possesses the qualities and character to inspire confidence, and whose authority to direct and command shall be universally accepted.

Thirdly: Patience.

In almost every one of his great speeches O'Connell impressed on his hearers the great lesson that *moral force* should always be preferred to physical force, and this counsel sunk deep into the hearts of millions of brave men; and the lessons of Irish history since the great agitator's death have only served to stamp this teaching with a new and higher authority.

The union of Irishmen was always one of the foremost aims of O'Connell, and up to 1843 he had succeeded to an extent and degree the like of which had never been seen before in the Island.

Under O'Connell's acknowledged leadership, the people of Ireland, up to this were united; they possessed a spirit of unbounded confidence in their chief and in each other. Divided councils had always proved the ruin of the Irish

cause ; "*divide est impera*" had been England's motto from the period of Strongbow's invasion down to the present, and in the critical hours it has not failed to do England's work in Ireland.

O'Connell saw the futility of revolutionary efforts in the then existing situation of his country, and he naturally shrunk from the alternative of civil war with all its pregnant train of horrors. He believed success attainable without it,and was convinced that *moral force* in the end would win self government for Ireland. He well knew, alas! Irish history sufficiently attests the melancholy cost of unsuccessful rebellion ; no one better knew the condition and resources of Ireland, nor could more accurately scan and measure the resources of Ireland's oppressor.

"What king," says the good book, "going to make war against another king, sitteth not down first and consulteth whether he be able with ten thousand to meet him that cometh against him with twenty thousand ?"

As one of the most admirable of Irish essayists puts the case : "They who would by force deliberately revolutionize, must, if true, thoroughly ponder this question, and in the great court of conscience they must not only ponder, but decide. England is at peace. England has fleets and armies completely organized and thoroughly disciplined. England impels all the organic machinery of the law and of power. Within Ireland she has a numerous party, and the most consummate statesmanship which would oppose Irish nationality.

England has a tremendous artillery, both on the sea and on the land. Nor is her strength in force alone. She has on her side the fears of the timid and the hopes of the aspiring; the distinction that allures the ambitious, and the riches that bribe the sordid, etc."

But there was now growing up a new generation in Ireland less tractable than the masses O'Connell had carried along with him in the Repeal movement.

The *Nation*, the "Library of Ireland," the ballads and the orators, had indeed stirred the masses as they had never been moved before. Boys had been growing up all these years amid excitement and popular commotion. Within

thousands of curly heads thoughts and hopes had been enkindled. As Mitchel afterwards wrote, "Under many a thin little jacket who can tell what a world of noble passion was set aglow; what haughty aspirings for themselves and their ancient land; what hot shame for their trampled country and the dishonored name of their fathers—what honest, wistful rage? Ha! if the thoughtful, fiery boy, but lives to be a man!"

The course and teachings of Mitchel will more naturally fall to a succeeding chapter. The bitter scorn and passionate taunts which he poured out against the peaceable policy and moral force teaching of O'Connell is known to every Irishman.

No writer since Swift had so stirred the country, and his famous letters to Lord Clarendon equalled in force and savage sarcasm the celebrated *Drapier* letters of the great Dean of St. Patricks.

It would be impracticable to condense in the limited compass allotted to these chapters a fair estimate, or even glimpse, of O'Connell's genius and character.

His life during forty years was the history of the country. To read the one is to know the other. He forced the concession of Catholic Emancipation. He attacked the Protestant Church establishment in Ireland, curbed it and laid the foundation for Gladstone's great measure of Dis-establishment in 1869.

He was a powerful auxiliary in the cause of Parliamentary Reform and he strongly urged Manhood Suffrage, and the Vote by Ballot. He supported the scheme of Education which had the sanction of religion and common sense. He consistently maintained throughout his entire career the principles of Civil and Religious liberty for all, without distinction of creed, *caste* or color. He won Corporate Reform and the Borough Franchise, and by his aid Free-trade was carried in Parliament.

He opposed "Orangeism," and every form of secret societies, as contrary alike to the teachings of religion, to reason, and to right principles.

He strongly denounced absenteeism, even going so far as to propose to tax absentee landlords.

O'Connell long ago pleaded for and demanded a report and revision of the code of land laws, and the agitation at present in progress in Ireland, if adhered to in the spirit of current declarations by its recognized leaders, is in the main only a reiteration of O'Connell's declared policies and teachings.

But after all, the crowning and enduring works of his life are embodied in the paramount achievements for which he struggled and with which his name is most conspicuously and prominently identified: *Catholic Emancipation*, and the *Repeal of the Union*.

The arrest and trial of O'Connell and the other "Repeal Martyrs" in 1843–4; the awful famine-blight which swept over the Island in 1845 (which will be alluded to more fully elsewhere in these chapters) and the subsequent death of O'Connell at Genoa in 1847, ends the chronicle of the later events in a career so memorable in Irish history.

The celebration of the O'Connell Centenary in 1875, recalls the world-wide homage paid to the memory of Ireland's great popular leader. That fame will not grow dim or be obscured by the lapse of time, and the critical judgment of posterity.

THE FAMINE.

The ominous intelligence now daily flashed across the Atlantic from Ireland—"Distress increasing; aid urgently needed,"—gives a fresh and mournful interest to the story of the awful famine visitation and potato-blight of 1846.

In the autumn of 1845 it became plainly manifest that a large part of the potato crop—the chief staple of food of the Irish peasantry—would fail, though at the time the awful extent and consequences of the impending calamity was not fully realized.

In 1846 almost the entire potato crop throughout Ireland was destroyed, and the horrible spectre of famine shadowed the whole country.

The public journals chronicled in full detail accounts of the progress and extent of the dread visitation. England and the world generally were apprised of it. The

destruction of the food of a whole people was a startling phenomenon almost without parallel in modern times, and the civilized world naturally was moved and appalled.

The Catholic prelates and priests of Ireland, the press and the public men of the country, early called the attention of the British ministry to the danger of the impending distress, and the need of prompt measures on the part of the government to avert, or at all events, to mitigate the ravages of the famine. O'Connell's last speech in the British House of Commons was an appeal, not for charity, but for justice to Ireland.

He stated (1), that famine and pestilence were imminent unless the government took prompt measures against them; (2), that this could best be done by employing the people in works of national utility; (3), that the ports ought to be closed against the exportation of corn (grain); (4), that public granaries ought to be established in various parts of the country, the corn to be sold at moderate prices; and (5), that the use of grain for distillation ought to be stopped.

The present English Prime Minister, Lord Beaconsfield, has thus described the appearance of O'Connell on the occasion of his last pathetic appeal to parliament, in behalf of the country and people he loved, and had served so long and faithfully:

"When the order of the day for resuming the adjourned debate was read, Mr. O'Connell rose at once to propose an amendment to the motion. He sate in an unusual place—in that generally occupied by the leader of the opposition, and spoke from the red box, convenient to him from the number of documents to which he had to refer.

"His appearance was of great debility, and the tones of his voice were very still. His words, indeed, only reached those who were immediately around him, and the ministers sitting on the other side of the green table, and listening with that interest and respectful attention which became the occasion. It was a strange and touching spectacle to those who remembered the form of colossal

energy, and the clear and thrilling tones that had once startled, disturbed and controlled Senates." O'Connell's appeal fell upon cold and unwilling ears. The government adopted a hesitating, pottering policy. Some few grants in aid of public works were made, numerous "commissions of enquiry" appointed, and that was all. The famine was not stayed; its ravages and the appalling destruction by *famine-fever* were scarcely mitigated by any of the efforts of the government. It is true the private charity of the English people was not wanting during the terrible crisis; and the records of the famine years show a measure of private bounty on their part that is in striking contrast with the niggardliness of the English Government.

The munificence of the people of America—the enthusiasm with which they flew to the rescue of the starving people of Ireland, was memorable beyond precedent.

Public meetings were held in all the principal cities and towns in the United States. Money and supplies were lavishly contributed; Congress was appealed to for the grant of the use of national vessels to carry corn and other food to the shores of Ireland, and the favor was promptly granted.

There was seen the uncommon spectacle of ships of war approaching a foreign shore, not to destroy life, but to preserve it—their guns being taken out to afford more room for stowage of provisions and grain.

The "Jamestown," a sloop of war, was freighted by the people of Massachusetts with 8,000 barrels of flour. She sailed from Boston the 28th of March, 1847, and arrived at Cork the 12th of April. The people of Cork and vicinity received the officers of the vessel with great enthusiasm, and gave them a *soiree* in Cork, at which the celebrated Father Matthew assisted.

SPEECH OF THOMAS F. MEAGHER.

Amongst the earliest ships which arrived freighted with corn from New York, was the *Victor*, Capt. Clarke. He was invited with his officers to a dinner in the historic pillar room of the Rotunda, at Dublin. At the banquet

in reply to a toast, "The Ladies of America," Thomas Francis Meagher spoke as follows:

"Strange scene! Ireland, the beaten and the bankrupt, entertains America, the victorious and the prosperous!

Stranger still! The flag of the *Victor* decorates this hall—decorates our harbor—not, indeed, in triumph, but in sympathy—not to commemorate the defeat, but to predict the resurrection, of a fallen people!

One thing is certain—we are sincere upon this occasion. There is truth in this compliment. For the first time in her career, Ireland has reason to be grateful to a foreign power.

Foreign power, Sir! Why should I designate that country a "foreign power," which has proved itself our sister country?

England, they sometimes say, is our sister country. We deny the relationship—we discard it. We claim America as our sister, and claiming her as such, we have assembled here this night.

Should a stranger, viewing this brilliant scene, inquire of me, why it is that, amid the desolation of this day—whilst famine is in the land—whilst the hearse-plumes darken the summer scenery of the island—whilst death sows his harvest, and the earth teems not with the seeds of life, but with the seeds of corruption—should he inquire of me, why it is, that, amid this desolation, we hold high festival, hang out our banners, and thus carouse—I should reply, "Sir, the citizens of Dublin have met to pay a compliment to a plain citizen of America, which they would not pay—'no not for all the gold in Venice'—to the minister of England."

Pursuing his inquiries, should he ask, why is this? I should reply, "Sir, there is a country lying beneath that crimson canopy on which we gaze in these bright evenings—a country exulting in a vigorous and victorious youth—a country with which we are incorporated by no Union Act—a country from which we are separated, not by a little channel, but by a mighty ocean—and this distant country, finding that our island, after an affiliation for centuries with the most opulent kingdom on earth,

has been plunged into the deepest excesses of destitution and disease—and believing that those fine ships which, a few years since, were the avenging angels of freedom, and guarded its domain with a sword of fire, might be intrusted with a kindlier mission, and be the messengers of life as they had been the messengers of death—guided not by the principles of political economy, but impelled by the holiest passions of humanity—this young nation has come to our rescue, and thus we behold the eagle—which, by the banks of the Delaware, scared away the spoiler from its offspring—we behold this eagle speeding across the wave, to chase from the shores of Old Dunleary, the vulture of the Famine. . . . . .

If the right of taxation had not been legally disputed in the village of Lexington—if the Stamp Act had not been constitutionally repealed on the plains of Saratoga—America would not now possess the wealth out of which she relieves the indigence of Ireland.

The toast, moreover, to which you have invited me to speak, dictates a noble lesson to this country. The ladies of America refused to wear English manufacture. The ladies of America refused to drink the tea that came taxed from England. If you honor these illustrious ladies, imitate their virtue, and be their rivals in heroic citizenship.

If their example be imitated here, I think the day will come when the Irish flag will be hailed in the port of Boston. But if, in the vicissitudes to which all nations are exposed, danger should fall upon the great Republic, and if the choice be made to us to desert or befriend the land of Washington and Franklin, I, for one, will prefer to be grateful to the Samaritan, rather than be loyal to the Levite."

The "Macedonian," another ship of war arrived later, conveying about 550 tons of provisions. Both ships were manned by volunteers.

The total contributions received from America by the "Central Relief Committee of the Society of Friends," were: Money, £15,976 18s. 2d.; provisions, 9,911 tons, valued at £133,847 7s. 7d.; 642 packages of clothing were

also received, the precise value of which was not exactly ascertained. The provisions were carried in 91 vessels, the united freights of which amounted to £33.017 5s. 7d. The American railroads and transportation companies carried, free of charge to the Eastern seaboard, all packages marked "Ireland." In fact, the supplies and money sent from America were on a scale unparalled in history.

Some of the older citizens of Chicago can recall the public meeting held in this city in the summer of 1847, in aid of the Irish famine sufferers, at which Lyle Smith made a speech of thrilling and surpassing eloquence—the memory and fame of which alone remains.

The appalling horrors of the famine years, 1845, 1846, 1847, will never be fully known, and the loss of life by famine and fever (the consequence of hunger) can only be approximated. Will it be credited that at one time 3,020,712 persons were in receipt of relief rations?

The scenes that are related of the ravages of the famine are almost too hideous and revolting for perusal. The contemporary journals were full of the most horrifying details; whole families found dead in their cabins; corpses too numerous to be always coffined flung in heaps into pits, rooted up afterwards by pigs; crowds of women and children scattered over the turnip-fields like a crowd of famishing crows, devouring the raw turnips, and mostly half naked, shivering in the snow and sleet, uttering exclamations of despair and hunger.

In other instances villages were found apparently deserted, and when an examination was made of the wretched cabins composing it, the ghastly skeletons of the emaciated inhabitants would be found huddled in a corner on a little filthy straw—the living, if those could be said to have life who still breathed—and the dead intermingled under the same scanty covering.

The artist of the *Illustrated London News*, in his letter from Skibbereen to that journal, Feb. 13, 1847, wrote: "Up to this morning, I, like a portion, I fear, of the community, looked on the diaries of Dr. Donovan, as published in the *Cork Southern Reporter*, to be bright colored pictures, doubtless intended for a good and humane

purpose; but I can now with perfect confidence say *that neither pen nor pencil ever could portray the misery and horror at this moment to be witnessed in Skibbereen.*" Another English writer, Mr. A. Shafto Adair, F. R. S., himself a landlord of large possessions in the county Antrim, in a published volume on the subject of the famine, etc., says: "I do not think it possible for an English reader, however powerful his imagination, to conceive the state of Ireland during the past winter, or its present condition.

Famines and plagues will suggest themselves, with their ghastly and repulsive incidents—the dead mother, the dying infant, the feast of cannibals, Athens, Jerusalem, Marseilles.

But these awful facts stand forth as dark spots in the illuminated chronicles of time ; episodes, it may be, of some magnificent epoch in a nation's history—tragedies acted in remote times, or in distant regions—the actors, the inhabitants of beleaguered cities, or the citizens of a narrow territory. But here the tragedy is enacted with no narrower limits than the boundaries of a kingdom ; the victims—an entire people—within our own days, at our own thresholds. "

THE CAUSE AND THE CURE.

The *London Times*, under date of 26th June, 1845, in advance of the famine visitation, though some then alarming distress existed in Ireland, published an article on "Irish Destitution," in which the following sentences occur :

"The facts of Irish destitution are ridiculously simple. They are almost too commonplace to be told. The people have not enough to eat. They are suffering a real, though an artificial famine.

"Nature does her duty. The land is fruitful enough. Nor can it be fairly said that man is wanting. The Irishman is disposed to work. In fact man and nature together produce abundantly. The island is full with overflowing food. But something ever interposes between the hungry mouth and the ample banquet.

The famished victim of a mysterious sentence stretches out his hands to the viands which his own industry has placed before his eyes, but no sooner are they touched than they fly. A perpetual decree of *sic vos non vobis* condemns him to toil without enjoyment. Social atrophy drains off the vital juices of the nation."

Here lies the secret of chronic Irish misery and distress. The Act of Union had crippled Ireland in all her resources and effected to paralyze all her industries. To eke a subsistence out of the soil was the sole and only employment and alternative for the poor Irish peasant; and the evils of a monstrous land-system, combined with *absenteeism*, drained Ireland of the capital which under a home government and the operation of more benign laws would be expended in the country. The rental drawn by absentees up to the time of the famine is estimated at $15,000,000 annually, and to this add the enormous amount drawn out of Ireland in taxes, about $5,000,000 annually, from 1800 to 1846, and it will readily be seen that the country must be impoverished by this enormous drain. Moreover, all domestic manufactures had long been paralyzed or driven out of existence. In 1840 a report drawn up by Mr. Ray, Secretary of the Repeal Association, was published, showing the decay in all branches of the industries which, prior to the Act of Union, had been in successful operation—notably the cotton, woolen and silk manufactures.

"In the early part of the present century," reports Mr. Ray, "the cotton trade extended itself through several parts of Ireland, and was carried on to a considerable extent in Dublin, Drogheda, Callan, Stratford, Mount Mellick, Limerick and Bandon. Belfast, however, was the center to which capital and skill were attracted. . . .

"For all practical purposes the cotton manufacture may almost be considered as extinct in all other parts of Ireland."

It was estimated that over $5,000,000 annually was sent out of Ireland for English manufactures, that had found an Irish market on the ruin of the native industries.

In 1798, Lord Chancellor Clare wrote: "There is not a

nation on the face of the earth which has advanced in cultivation, in agriculture and manufactures, with such rapidity as Ireland." The bankers of Dublin the same year, as well as the Guild of merchants, passed resolutions to the effect that: "The commerce of Ireland has increased, and her manufactures have improved beyond example, since the Independence of this Kingdom was restored by the exertions of our own countrymen in 1782." After the Union all this progress was arrested.

In 1843 Mr. Kirwan, a merchant of Dublin, made the following statement at a meeting of the corporation of that city, and the statement was admitted to be correct by his political opponents :

"He recollected the time," he said, "when there was commerce and commercial wealth in Dublin ; when there was business in their custom house ; when they had ships in their docks from Virginia, New York, Philadelphia, Russia, Prussia, Sweden and Denmark. Was there a foreign ship to be seen in them at present ? not one ! He remembered to have seen 25 ships from the United States there. There had been none for years," etc., etc.

Thus it was that Ireland became thoroughly impoverished, and possessed within herself no power of self defense against the visitation of the famine blight. She could not accumulate capital when all the resources of her people were carried off to England to pay absentee rents and absentee taxes, and to meet the other drains caused by unfriendly legislation.

The remedy lay in a total change in the system of land tenure and the concession of Home Rule, or according to O'Connell's plan, a "Repeal of the Union."

OLD AND YOUNG IRELAND.

But few of those who battled with O'Connell for Repeal remain, and alas! the exiles of '48 are rapidly passing away. It is full time that Irishmen both at home and abroad concurred in burying forever political passions and resentments which so long have divided and weakened their power and influence.

The bitter lesson of experience should teach them wis-

dom. To defame, to malign, to belittle, is peculiar only to mean minds and base hearts.

The genius and talent shown by Irishmen ought to be a source of just pride to the sons of the Green Isle ; it reflects honor on all her children, and will forever illuminate Irish history. Why then disparage the glory and just fame of O'Connell ? The splendor of his genius and the renown of his great achievements is of world-wide recognition.

These have passed into history, and if it be natural to exult in the recollection of O'Connell's memorable career, it is equally natural that the patriotism and heroic sacrifices of the men of '48 should not be forgotten. No wonder that their ballads captivated and enlisted the youth of Ireland!

Whatsoever was brilliant in literature, inspiring in love, ennobling in art, and captivating in oratory, was arrayed on the side of the young enthusiasts.

The poetry of Moore, and the fascinating fictions of Griffin, Banim, and Lover, had prepared the way for the new *regime*.

Davis's luminous essays and soul-stirring lyrics; Mitchel's piercing, scornful invective; McGee's glittering rhetoric and stirring songs; Mangan's wierd, fanciful chaunts; the sweet strains of "Mary," and of "Eva;" the poetic appeals of "Speranza"—but why attempt to recapitulate?—the genius of Ireland seemed to have poured out with unstinted measures all the gifts, and concentrated in this party all the talents necessary to inspire and exalt a people. Hitherto Ireland had no literature—at least not since the far remote period when from the most distant parts of Europe, scholars flocked to study in the schools and universities which dotted the island in the golden age of her annals. Now, as if by magic, her history and traditions were taken up by scores of pens ; her songs had been but street-ballads or the half forgotten plaint of wandering bards; instantly a throng of inspired poets gave to Ireland and to song melodies which at once charmed and inspired, and which are still sung the world over.

The arts were invoked and Barry, Mulready and Maclise, Hogan and Foley gave to painting and to sculpture many of the noblest productions of human genius. In oratory! but why recall names and themes? A glance at the text-books in schools and colleges will demonstrate how copious and abundant are the proofs of Irish forensic renown.

YOUNG IRELAND.

In the midst of this popular fermentation, it is not to be wondered at that many of the young enthusiasts who engaged in the repeal movement, impatient of delay and restraint, looked beyond the prospect of mere repeal, and dreamed of a complete and entire separation from England.

Circumstances suggested and seemed even to favor the boldest and wildest aspirations.

The rumbling of the impending revolutions was plainly heard all over the continent; kings were trembling; thrones were tottering; and in every city of Europe pens wrote and tongues preached the popular republican doctrines and ideas.

The Dublin *Nation*, at this time had become conspicuously the powerful organ of public opinion in Ireland.

No public journal ever embraced in its service a more brilliant or a more distinguished *corps* of writers and contributors than did the *Nation* when it was guided by Charles Gavan Duffy.

To enumerate them would be to recall almost all the names known to the world in modern Irish literature. Thomas Davis, James Clarence Mangan, Joseph Brenan, Richard D'Alton Williams, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, Daniel Ferguson, Thomas Devin Reilley, Michael Doheny, Thomas MacNevin, John B. Dillon, Dr. Antisel, John Savage, Stephen J. Meany, Rev. C. P. Meehan, P. J. Smythe, now member of Parliment and John Mitchel.

Nor was the fair sex unrepresented in—as may be expected—the "Poets' Corner:" witness "Speranza" (Lady Wilde) "Mary," "Eva," and others whose literary *nom de plume* will be familiar at least to Irish readers of the older class.

This galaxy of talent founded a new school, not only in literature but in politics as well—a school peculiarily and distinctively national, "racy of the soil."

The *Nation* thus became the centre and organ of all that was brilliant in literature, and bold, ardent and even audacious in politics.

Almost every writer was an orator, and there were orators as well as writers.

Smith O'Brien, Meagher, O'Gorman, O'Dogherty, O'Donoughue, MacManus, and others too numerous to admit of mention. How they blazed and thundered on the platform and at the hustings! And what magnificent phillipics were launched in the columns of the popular journal against the English government and its myrmidons in Dublin Castle!

Whilst O'Connell and the orators of the Repeal Association were careful to inculcate the wisdom and duty of obedience to law, and insisted on the force and power of moral agencies as a sufficient means to redress Irish grievances, and especially to effect the coveted "Repeal of the Union," the enthusiasts of the Young Ireland party were led farther and farther away from the influence and teachings of the great agitator; and soon the divergence became too visible to be misunderstood—a separation became inevitable.

We do not purpose entering into a detailed history of the causes which led to this much to be regretted separation; and we only allude to it here because without it a resume of Irish affairs in the years of the great Repeal agitation would be visibly and manifestly incomplete and unsatisfactory.

The earnestness, the honesty of purpose, the exalted patriotism of the principal leaders of the Young Ireland party, cannot be impugned.

Nearly all of them sacrificed fortune, personal prospects, liberty, and not a few of them even life itself (in English penal servitude or as a consequence of exile), in testimony of their devotion to Ireland. The wisdom and prudence of their public course may be called in question; their patriotism and devotion never!

Nor should the services of the gallant Young Ireland party to the cause of Irish National literature be forgotten. While Eugene O'Curry, Dr. O'Donovan and Prof. Petrie were delving in the mine of ancient Irish literature, unearthing forgotten MSS., restoring, transcribing, and translating the venerable and, but for their zeal, the hopelessly lost treasures of Irish archæological literature; another more numerous and a more brilliant band of writers were engaged creating, illustrating and embellishing every department of prose and poetry.

The "Library of Ireland," alone would be a creditable and valuable acquisition to the literature of any country; and an impetus was given to Irish authorship by the enthusiasm of the period, the effects of which are still plainly felt in Ireland.

THE IRISH EXODUS.

Previous to the years of the Irish famine there had been a large and steadily increasing emigration from Ireland. The potato crop failure in 1822 led to a partial famine in the following years, and this was succeeded by an attempt at organized emigration. The government undertook to direct and superintend this movement, which thus received official importance, and the first colony of emigrants in 1823 were sent out to Canada and settled at a place then known as Peterborough, in number 568 persons.

The government paid the cost of transportation and supported the colonists for eighteen months after landing, the cost being about £22 or $110 per capita.

In 1825, the Hon. Peter Robinson, a government commissioner, took out 2,024 emigrants under the same conditions of subsidy from the government. What was the fate of these Irish colonists in Canada ?

John Francis Maguire, in his admirable work on "The Irish in America," thus refers to the Peterborough settlement as he saw it in 1866–7 :

"The shanty and the wigwam, and the log hut have long since given place to the mansion of brick and stone; and the hand-sleigh and the rude cart to the strong wagon and the well-appointed carriage.

"Where there was but one miserable grist mill, there are now mills and factories of various kinds. And not only are there spacious schools under the control of those who erected them and made use of them for their children, but the "heavy grievance" which existed in 1825, has long since been a thing of the past (an allusion to the operation of the unfair school laws of Canada in the early part of the century, an injustice long since repaired—an example, by the way, which Americans would do well to profit by.—Compiler.) "The little chapel of logs and shingles, 18 feet by 20, in which the settlers of that day knelt in gratitude to God, has for many years been replaced by a noble stone church, through whose painted windows the Canadian sunlight streams gloriously, and in which 2,000 worshippers listen with the old Irish reverence to the words of their pastor. The tones of the pealing organ swells in solemn harmony where the simple chant of the first settlers was raised in the midst of the wilderness, and for miles around may the voice of the the great bell, swinging in its lofty tower, be heard in the calm of the Lord's day, summoning the children of St. Patrick to worship in the faith of their fathers."

The attention of the British or Imperial Parliament was frequently called to the subject of emigration, and numerous reports concerning it appear in the Blue Books. As a rule all the official reports on the question were adverse to the continuance of government aid. This was true up to the period of the celebrated Devon land commission, which in 1842 undertook the formidable labor of investigating and reporting to Parliament on the then existing land question in both countries.

The report of this commission presented to Parliament in 1845, recommended emigration from Ireland as "one among the measures which the situation of the occupiers of the land in Ireland at present calls for." The total colonist and foreign emigration, that is to other than British dependencies, between 1831 and 1841, amounted to 403,459; and the official returns add 25,012 for probable births, *in transit*. 214,047 embarked from Irish

ports, 152,738 from Liverpool, and to these ten per cent. should be added for imperfect returns.

Of those who went from Ireland 76,905 sailed from ports in Ulster; 70,046 from Munster; 34,977 from Leinster; and only 32,119 from Connaught.

By far the greater part of the whole number sailed for Canada. In 1838 emigration was at its minimum in Ireland; 14,700 were all that left Ireland in that year.

The tide swelled afterwards:

In 1841 the numbers was	71,392
1842	89,686
1843	37,509
1844	54,289
1845	74,969
1846	105,955
1847	215,444
1848	178,159
1849	214,425
1850	209,054
1851	257,572

From the 1st of May, 1851, to 31st March, 1871, the the total emigration from Ireland was 2,604,292.

These figures do not include the immigrants from Ireland to England and Scotland.

In 1846, from the 13th January to 1st November, 278,005 emigrants arrived in Liverpool from Ireland. Never before was such an exodus known in history. It was sudden, startling, unpremeditated, and unorganized. Books could be written on the flight of this famine-stricken people, but no human pen would be equal to the task of depicting the truthful story of that melancholy and soul-harrowing emigration.

It is one of the saddest episodes in modern history.

Upwards of one million of human beings died in Ireland from the famine and its consequences, fever and like diseases engendered by hunger.

Two millions of Irish emigrants, from 1845 to 1860, fled from the land that gave them birth, but in which they no longer could hope to eke out a livelihood. The

cruel laws and the vengeful policies of England drove these millions into exile.

The census of 1841 shows the population of Ireland to have been 8,175,124.

According to the usual ratio of increase, in 1851 the population should be 9,018,799, instead of which it fell to 6,552,385—a reduction of nearly two and a half millions! These were swept away by the famine and emigration.

The emigration during the ten years from 1841 to 1851 was 1,436,862—subtract this from the amount of the decrease shown above and the remainder will be 1,039,552, which number must have died of starvation.

Nor was this all. The mortality consequent on the famine emigration must be added, and the startling figure of 17½ per cent. is given as the death-rate on the vessels carrying the famine sufferers.

89,738 emigrants embarked for Canada in 1847. One in every three of those who arrived were received into hospitals, and the deaths on the passage or soon after arriving were 15,330, or over 17 per cent. Assuming that the death-rate was at least as great amongst the emigrants who went to the United States during the six famine years, 1846 to 1852, and the total deaths from this consequence of the famine would be 200,668. Thus we have *one million two hundred and forty thousand* deaths resulting from the Irish famine and other pestilence which followed in its track.

The mortality on board the emigrant ships was indeed terrible, and, whatever the causes the deaths in *British ships* enormously exceeded those in the ships of any other country. The "Erin Queen" sailed with 493 passengers of whom 136 died on the voyage.

The "Avon," with 552 passengers, had 246 deaths, and the "Virginius," with 476 emigrants, had 267 deaths.

These facts and figures are shown in the Report of the Commissioner of Emigration, N. Y., and by Dr. Stratten in the Edinburgh *Medical and Surgical Journal.*

It would be instructive to trace out and indicate in a general way the career and fortunes of this vast swarm of exiles, who thronged to the friendly soil of the United

States and the Canadas. Sufficient time has now elapsed since the memorable "exodus" to enable the reader to draw some general conclusions from the facts which are of general notoriety.

First, then, the fatal and irremediable mistake of the Irish emigrant, after landing was in settling down in the seaboard cities, or in the principal inland towns, and occupying as his lot the task of a day laborer.

At home the Irish people, it may be said, are farmers or tillers of the soil. Few of them in those years were bred to mechanical employments and fewer still had opportunity for commercial pursuits. They were naturally and by training adapted to farm life. Yet the strange anomaly appears that with a continent inviting their patient toil to wrest farms out of the primeval forests, and the more tempting prairies, they allowed the glorious opportunity to slip from them and were content to accept the miserable and precarious alternative of city life. One cannot but be impatient when we reflect on the folly of this choice. The tide of Irish emigration from 1846 to 1854, to the United States, had it been directed aright, would have peopled and possessed the states west of the Mississippi, and not a few of the states east of the "Father of Waters," Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, etc.

Prosperity, independence and power would have been the consequence.

It is no merely optimistic view to assert that with this result attained, the vexed and ever recurring "Irish problem" would have been solved ere this. But, partly from the force of circumstances, and in part because of foolish and stupid advice too trustfully and credulously accepted, and too unwisely followed, the Irish emigrant was in most cases content to follow the rudest and most laborious employments in the great cities, instead of pushing out to the West and taking a farm.

This blunder was early foreseen and pointed out by many Irishmen—notably by Thomas D'Arcy McGee, who persisted, in the face of high and powerful opposition, in his efforts from 1848 to 1856, to induce the Irish

emigrants to settle upon the lands in the west, which were then still open to occupation under pre-emption laws.

He pointed out the perils and inevitable degradation of city life, and warned his countrymen to not let pass the opportunity which then presented itself to "occupy and possess the land."

With prophetic pen he warned them that, "whatever we can do for ourselves as a people, in North America, must be done before the close of this century, or the epitaph of our race will be written in the west with the single sentence "Too Late!"

THE DUBLIN NATION NEWSPAPER.

The era of "Young Ireland" may be said to have begun with the founding of the *Nation* newspaper in Dublin, by Duffy, Dillon and Davis, in 1842, and to have ended with the arrest of Smith O'Brien and his associates in August, 1848.

The works of that brilliant band of patriots, as orators, writers and poets, brought a new soul into Ireland—placed the tombstone on the grave of "Whiggery" as a potent element in Irish politics; aroused, in spite of revolutionary failure, the spirit of the country from provincial vassalage, and prepared the way for the men and the times that will yet see justice done to the memory of the heroic young martyr of 1803.

The heaviest blow that fell upon the Irish National Cause during the earlier part of the "Young Ireland" era was the death by fever, in September, 1845, of Thomas Davis, in the thirty-first year of his age. This brilliant gentleman was of Welsh descent and was born in Mallow, Cork County, in 1814. He received a thorough education, but did not develop any particular talent until about the middle of 1843, when suddenly he burst into song such as Ireland's heart had not been stirred by since the harp of Drennan was broken in 1798.

Nor was the genius of Davis confined to song alone. In prose, as in poesy, he was equally happy, lucid and fascinating. Around him clustered that band of splendid

enthusiasts who made the columns of the Dublin *Nation* the most classic in Europe, and whose truth and devotion, for the most part, have made their names household words to the Irish people of their own and this generation.

When Davis died, O'Connell's influence in British and Irish politics was already on the wane. The old giant of agitations was sinking wearily to his long repose, and the famine-cloud, laden with pestilence and death, had begun to form in the horizon of Connaught and south-western Munster. O'Connell saw the disaster approaching, but could devise no means of averting it. He lived to see the "civilized" government of Lord John Russell take advantage of the famine to reduce the Irish population, by starvation and exodus, from eight and a half to little more than seven millions; and then, spent with age and grief and toil, the old Tribune sought the shores of Italy, hoping to reach the Vatican, but died in Genoa in May, 1847. His death occasioned a blank that many years have not seen filled. Possessed of great gifts—the most powerful popular orator of any age—he was alas! defective in political sagacity.

The turning point of his career was his backdown before the proclamation of Lord De Grey, in 1843, when the Clontarf monster meeting was forbidden. His vacillation on that occasion sealed, for that time, the fate of the Irish people; broke his own influence and handed him and Ireland over to the tender mercies of the British government. No amount of slaughter that might have followed defiance of the government at Clontarf could have equaled the horrible mortality that subsequently came upon the Irish nation through the agency of a famine which England coolly allowed to settle the question of her supremacy in Ireland.

After the death of Davis, his place in the *Nation*, so far as the editorial business went, was supplied by John Mitchel, a young Unitarian from Derry, who, although not a Celt by blood, seemed to have concentrated in his nature all the hatred ever borne to England by "Shane the Proud," of Tyrowen, or "Red Hugh," of Tyrconnel.

The tone of his writings went home to Ireland's heart and before many months he had the *Nation* involved in a state prosecution because of a most ingenious and covertly warlike article on the use of railways as a military factor, written in reply to some boastings of the English press.

SECESSION FROM THE REPEAL ASSOCIATION.

In July, 1846, occurred the secession of "Young" from "Old" Ireland in Conciliation hall. O'Connell, who appeared to have a childish abhorrence of revolution, caused a series of resolutions "abhorring and stigmatizing" violent means, in all lands and at all times, to be introduced before a general meeting of repealers. His son, John, who was in no way worthy of his sire, brought matters to a crisis, and after a debate in which Thomas Francis Meagher, then a mere youth, won immortality as an orator, Smith O'Brien, Mitchel, Duffy, Dillon, Meagher and others, quitted Conciliation hall never again to enter it.

THE IRISH CONFEDERATION OF '48.

From that hour "Old Ireland" ceased to be a vital consideration in Irish affairs, and the rival party, forming the "Irish Confederation" rallied around it every element in the Island that looked beyond agitation as a means of national deliverance. One of "Young Ireland's" poets announced the programme in these words:

There's not a man in all the land
Our country now can spare—
The strong man with his sinewy hand
The weak man with his prayer;
No whining tone of mere regret,
Young Irish bards, for you;
But let your songs teach Ireland yet
What Irishmen should do.

The career of the Irish confederation was brief and brilliant. If eloquence such as has not thrilled the island since the days of Grattan could have conquered the English legions, the orations of young Meagher would have vanquished them. In this line of warfare, that radiant

orator was ably seconded by Richard O'Gorman, Jr., Michael Doheny, Thomas D'Arcy McGee, and Father John Kenyon, parish priest of Templederry in Tipperary. McGee's subsequent career did not, unhappily, vouch for the sincerity of his youth, but all others mentioned either "died in the harness" or else live to ponder over the vicissitudes of a patriot life.

Mitchel, Gavan Duffy and John B. Dillon were the chief prose writers of that epoch, while John O'Hagan ("Sievegullion"), Michael Joseph Barry, J. De Jean Frazer, Denis Florence McCarthy, and occasionally, Duffy, fired the popular heart with bardic strains.

Meanwhile, the famine grew daily more deadly, and John Mitchel—ever impatient and honest—grew tired of agitation. He differed essentially from Smith O'Brien and Gavan Duffy in this: He declared openly that instead of saying to the people "Agitate! Agitate!" he would say "Arm! Arm!"

This produced still another secession. Mitchel resigned his position on the *Nation*, and ceased to be a member of the confederation for whose existence he no longer saw any use. He was followed by three spirits of his own kind—John Kenyon, Thomas Devin Reilly, and John Martin. By their exertions the *United Irishman* was established in Dublin, and never before or since did the English government have such plain truth hurled at it on Irish soil. Mitchel utterly denied the right of England to rule Ireland at all—abused the Lord Lieutenant in unqualified terms, advocated separation and recommended pikes and vitriol as means of emancipation from the foreign yoke. Clubs were formed in nearly all the principal towns, and drilling was secretly practised in most of them. This was in the spring of 1848, at a time when the peasantry of Ireland had been more than decimated by the famine, and when those that survived had their native valor crushed out of them by misfortunes which have no parallel.

Soon, the force of circumstances—notably the French revolution which dethroned Louis Philippe—hurried O'Brien, Meagher, and the rest of the confederates into

the same line with Mitchel. The latter was for immediate action, while his friends thought it better to wait until the harvest was gathered before appealing to arms.

The government did not intend to be caught napping, and so, in March, 1848, O'Brien, Meagher, and Mitchel were arrested and tried for sedition. The two former were acquitted, but Mitchel whose "trial" did not take place until May, was convicted under the "Treason-felony" act, rushed through both houses, for the special purpose of convicting him, within thirty-six hours. Before sentence of transportation beyond the seas, for fourteen years, was passed upon him, he delivered from the dock a brief, but memorable speech, in which, among other pregnant things, he declared that British "law" in Ireland was based upon "packed juries, partisan judges, and perjured sheriffs." He hoped the people would make an attempt to rescue him, and so precipitate the revolution. So they would have done, but were unwisely, as it turned out, restrained by O'Brien and the rest, who thought that "the time" had not yet come. That ended the hope of a gallant revolt, which might have bloodily redeemed the errors of both old and young Ireland, even though the people, like the Hungarians a year later, had been trampled down, for that time, by foreign hoofs and slaughtered by foreign bayonets. Mitchel was sent beyond the ocean, and with him fled the military spirit of "the most unfortunate of nations."

SUSPENSION OF THE HABEAS CORPUS ACT.

In July the habeas corpus act having been cunningly suspended, O'Brien and his friends, when too late, took the field. Only one encounter of any note took place—that at Ballingarry Tipperary, under O'Brien, with the constabulary as opponents. The latter retreated to a strong farm house, situated on a rising ground, and from cover easily defeated the almost unarmed people. O'Brien, Terence Bellew McManus and James Stephens—then a mere lad—showed cool courage during the attack, but all was in vain. Meagher was in another part of the country at the time. Stephens was badly wounded, but

was carried to the mountains by the peasantry and concealed until his recovery enabled him to escape to France.

In August, O'Brien, Meagher, McManus and O'Donoghue were arrested in Tipperary, and in October of the same year were tried at Clonmel, convicted of high treason, and sentenced to be "hanged, drawn and quartered," in the old barbaric fashion.

This horrible sentence would have, no doubt, been carried into effect, had not Gen. Charles Napier published a letter which showed that members of the Russell ministry, including the Premier himself, had been implicated in the treasonable attempt to seduce the army from its allegiance and march on London to force reform in 1832.

This document had the desired effect, and Parliament modified the sentence ot the four patriots by reducing it from the death-penalty to transportation for life to the penal settlements of Australia.

BANISHMENT OF THE LEADERS.

The banishment of the Young Ireland Chiefs already mentioned, not to speak of John Martin and Kevin Isodore O'Doherty, who shared the same fate, and the flight of all the others, except Duffy, left the nation virtually headless. After a "fitful fever" of fifty years, the tranquility of political death succeeded, and Lord Russell stood triumphant as the greatest conqueror, by dastardly methods, of "the Irish difficulty."

Of the then brilliant poetesses of the old *Nation*, "Eva," who subsequently became the bride of O'Dogherty, alone retained some of the fire which used to inflame the island in former years. "Speranza" and "Mary" were stricken dumb by the mortification of utter and inglorious defeat. The spring of 1850 found "Eva" uttering in the *Freeman* the following rythmical prophecy in reference to the exiles of 1848:

Our true men! Our true men !
We proudly sing them all,
In captive's chain across the main,
Despite of Britain's thrall;
Our true men—our true men,
We do not fear to tell

How deep within our inmost souls
They and their treason dwell!

Our true men! our few men—
They only walked the way
Where right of yore led some before,
And more will pride to-day.
Our true men! our true men
Perchance, like you, to fail,
But others then will fill the van
And still the struggle hail!

Charles Gavan Duffy and Frederick Lucas attempted, in alliance with Sharman Crawford, to get tenant right for the people, but after an arduous struggle, in and out of parliament, the whole movement failed ignominiously, developing the basest treason in some of the "constitutional" champions of tenant reform. The typical traitor of that epoch was one William Keogh—a lawyer by profession—a man of superior talents, but entirely destitute of conscience or common honesty. He became a Judge of the Circuit in Ireland and was the most execrated man that wore the ermine since the days of Norburry. At length retribution overtook him, and after nearly murdering his valet, he died in a lunatic asylum a raving maniac. Irish grass ought to refuse to grow above the earth which his dust contaminates.

John Sadlier, "the suicide banker," was a crony of Keogh's, and a co-partner in his treason. His memory, as the robber of widows and orphans who trusted him with their savings, smells to heaven. He met, by his own hand, a fitting death. He was as great a rascal, but less of a physical coward than Keogh. Ireland and the world at large are well rid of both.

Gavan Duffy, who, with all his fine qualities, had always a touch of weakness in his composition, left Ireland in 1853, saying that her cause was "dead as a corpse on the dissecting table." He made his home in Australia, interested himself in colonial affairs, and became a Minister of State. He was subsequently knighted, but the "Sir" prefixed to his name by the act of the Crown of England, obliterated his services from the record of the

Irish people. They never forgive a man who, once a patriot, accepts honors of any kind at the hands of the national enemy.

ORGANIZATION OF THE PHŒNIX SOCIETY.

For some years after the desertion of Duffy, Ireland, with the exception of a sickly agitation of a semi-religious nature, lay supine, and England hoped she had heard the last of her ancient foe. But the policeman's bullet at Ballingarry, in 1848, missed the life of James Stephens, who returned secretly from France, where he had learned from Poles, Italians and Hungarians, the art of conspiracy, and proceeded to organize the Phœnix Society, with the object of total separation from England, in the north of Ireland. In some unfortunate way the secret was revealed to the government, and a couple of miserable informers in Cork and Kerry "sold the pass" on their associates. O'Donovan Rossa—a man of much energy and doggedness, but of little polish or tact—was the chief victim. O'Sullivan, Agreem, in Kerry, was convicted and sentenced to a term of transportation, which was afterwards commuted to an agreed withdrawal from British territory. O'Donovan Rossa and others were allowed to plead guilty, by advice of counsel, and retire to America, where, it is almost needless to say, they continued the conspiracy in another form.

The Phoenix fiasco did not deter Stephens from proceeding. He was a man of dauntless determination and of unbounded resources. The chief defect of his character was an egotistical tendency toward absolutism—a characteristic that worked well enough with the ignorant, but which did not serve him with the more enlightened. Slavish obedience invariably won his favor, and the final regret was that he took into his confidence many designing knaves who, in after times, did not scruple to sell him and the cause to the authorities of Dublin castle.

THE IRISH PEOPLE NEWSPAPER—THE FENIANS.

In 1863, with the establishment of the *Irish People*, revolution found an organ once more on the soil of Ire-

land. The publication was inspired by Stephens, and had for contributors such men as Thomas Clarke Luby, O'Donovan Rossa, Charles J. Kickham and John O'Leary. Under the name of the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood, the secret organization continued to develop, fed by contributions from the American branch, of which John O'Mahony, another of the men of 1848, was president or head-centre—until, in September, 1865, the office of the *Irish People* was seized in Dublin, and all the prominent leaders, except Stephens himself, captured. He eluded the vigilance of the detectives for about a month, when he too was captured in his own house outside the city, and locked up in Richmond Bridewell. On the 25th of November, 1865, he electrified the three kingdoms by making his escape from the prison, assisted by J. J. Breslin, the hospital warden, and by Daniel Byrne, the night-watchman and turnkey, both of whom, as well as Stephens, are now in New York. He remained concealed at lodgings in Dublin for several months, and after a series of astonishing adventures, reached France, whence he subsequently came to the United States.

In the meantime the American organization had become formidable, chiefly owing to the close of the civil war which released from service tens of thousands of Irish officers and soldiers eager to fight for Ireland.

All went well until after the Philadelphia convention of November, 1865, when O'Mahony and the "Senate" had a dispute in respect to policy, and this dispute led to a secession, the results of which proved disastrous to both parties. O'Mahoney was a thoroughly honest man, but lived in the past a good deal, and his slow methods did not suit the hotter blood of the secessionists, led by such men as Michael Scanlan, William R. Roberts, P. W. Dunne, E. L. Carey and James W. Fitzgerald. The latter were honest in their convictions, too, but there was no chance of an agreement between them. The "Senate," led by William R. Roberts and Gen. Thomas Sweeney—a distinguished Irish-American officer—proposed an invasion of Canada. This plan was bitterly opposed by O'Mahoney and his followers, and the hitherto

powerful Brotherhood split hopelessly into two factions. Both hated England furiously, and, let it be uttered with sadness, both were for a time laden with animosity toward each other.

Stephens came over in 1866, but owing to his constitutional despotism, failed to fill the breach. Sweeney made his attempt on Canada, well planned but badly managed, in May, 1866, and failed. A brilliant engagement took place on June 2 at a place called Limestone Ridge, in Upper Canada—a few miles from Buffalo—between Col. John O'Neill, with 500 men, and the Canadian Volunteers, 1,400 strong, under Col. Booker. The latter were defeated with a loss of three officers and 93 men killed and wounded. O'Neill lost one officer and 9 men killed, and two officers and 23 men wounded. As he was threatened by a superior force of regular troops, and remained unsupported, he effected his retreat to the Niagara river, and in attempting to re-cross that stream, was arrested, with all his men, by the United States authorities, before whom he had a nominal trial, which eventually resulted in the entrance of a *nolle prosequi*.

Gen. Meade, acting for the United States, sent to their homes nearly 30,000 Fenian troops, who, but for the bad management of the generals and the unfriendly attitude of Andrew Johnson's government, might have made hot work for the Canadians, as most of them were veterans of the Federal and Confederate armies.

The rest of the record of 1866 is disheartening in the extreme. Chaos reigned in Fenian councils, and the old curse of disunion appeared to be more powerful than ever.

O'Donovan Rossa, O'Leary, Kickham and dozens of others were tried and convicted in Ireland, and were sentenced to terms of imprisonment with hard labor, varying from life down to six years. The hardships and indignities heaped upon the unfortunate men in English prisons have since become a theme of horror for the people of two continents.

What followed is fresh in the public mind—the abortive "rising" of 1867; the arrest of Gen. Bourke and his

compatriots ; the treason of Gen. Massey and Corrydon ; the rescue of Col. Kelley and Capt. Deasy from the prison van at Manchester, and the savage rage of England, which did not rest satisfied until Allen, Larkin and O'Brien forfeited their lives on the gallows, November 23, 1867, for the accidental shooting of Sargeant Brett during the fracas; the explosion of Clerkenwell, resulting in the hanging of Michael Barrett ; the total collapse of the movement in Ireland ; O'Neill's ill-advised second attempt in Canada in 1870, and its unfortunate result ; the disestablishment of the Irish church by Gladstone, and the nominal revision of old land laws.

THE OLD CAUSE UNDER ANOTHER FORM.

Now again, after years of disappointment, during which the release of the Fenian prisoners from Queensland by a supposed secret agency was the only brilliant exploit; the Irish cause, under the leadership of Charles Stuart Parnell, presents itself in another form. It is the legitimate heir of an immortal struggle, and is led by a man who is not likely to go out of any movement he undertakes unless "feet foremost."

Mr. Parnell can look back 700 years and see all the way behind him nothing but executioners' head-blocks, hangmen's cross-trees, and convict vessels. He can look forward and, perhaps, see the rift in the clouds that indicates the coming, after all her toil and defeat and misery, of a brighter and nobler period in the history of his country.

ENGLISH INDIFFERENCE TO IRISH WANT.

The most striking evidence of the antagonistic feeling between the English and the Irish people, is the seeming heartlessness of the English press concerning the legal proceedings now going on in Ireland against the tenants in arrears for rent. We need not repeat the story of the horrible land-system in Ireland. The owners are mainly non-residents, and representatives of Saxon families who obtained the land by confiscation, and who spend their time and money in England or on the Continent. The

land is, in many cases, if not generally, covered with settlements of fixed sums, to be paid annually out of the rents. The owner inherits the estate charged with these settlements in favor of various persons,—brothers, sisters, cousins, uncles, and aunts. The residue of the rent, after paying these liens, is the share of the proprietor, who, in turn, at his death, charges the land with provisions for the support of those dependent on him. Land is often, in this way, subjected to charges for the support of two generations of persons receiving annuities out of the rents. To meet these, and to live in the style of a nabob, there is a necessity for keeping the income from the rents at the utmost sum. The expenditure of the owner is limited to his income from the land ; and, as there is not enough land to supply all those leeches, the landlords resort to the practice of renting by competition. This is what is known as "rack-renting." A tenant farmer who pays $10 an acre rent, and who by hard labor and economy is just able to make that rent and support his family, is met at the next leasing by a notice that the farm will be rented to the highest bidder. If the landlord receive offers of $15, $20, or even $25 an acre rent, the tenant in possession must, though he knows the land in the best of seasons will not pay this sum, advance on these prices or move out, and probably be unable to get another farm even on as good terms. This system of rack-renting, or renting by competition, practiced year after year, has forced the rates of rent to such a point that the laborious struggle of the tenant is to pay the rent and get potatoes and buttermilk enough to keep his family from starving. If there be even a partial failure of the crop, or if there be a partial blight of the potatoes, then there is either an inability to pay the whole rent or a chance of the family famishing, and perhaps both.

The crops of Ireland (and also of England) partially failed in 1878. In 1879 the failure was even greater, and American competition in meats and breadstuffs deprived the producers of much of the value of what little they had to sell. The loss was general, extending to every county in Ireland and to every locality, reducing

the whole tenant-farming population, north and south, Catholic and Protestant, to a common plane of misfortune. To the extent of their crop, to the value of every bushel of grain and roots, to the money received for every pig and beef, and cow, for every pound of butter, and for everything that labor could produce,—all was given over to the landlord to pay the rent. All that was reserved was such scant quantity of potatoes as might furnish the family with food until more could be raised.

The failure to pay the rent in whole or only in part was, of course, a reduction of the income of the landlords. They suffered the loss of 10, 25, or 40 per cent. of their income, and as their habit of living required every penny of income, the default of rent has subjected them to inconvenience. They had the "legal" claim to their full rent. The tenants legally owed them the whole sum called for by the contract. They had the legal power to enforce all the hard obligations of that contract. In short, the law and the cruel custom of Ireland were on their side.

But while there is no more legal defense for the non-payment of full rent this year, there is much to be said in extenuation of the default. The tenants could not control the elements. They could not restrain the torrents of rain that during the summer of 1879 deluged Ireland; they could not restrain the floods that swept the growing grain and spoiled the hay in the field, and even washed the root-crop from the earth; they could not drive off the watery clouds that for weeks and months obscured the sun, poured down torrents, and kept from the earth the heat and light that were needed to warm vegetation into healthy life and vigor; they could not prevent the fall in the market prices of what they had left for sale. The wreck and ruin of their year's labor was through no fault or crime of theirs. It was one of those calamitous visitations that entitled the victims to the sympathy and the forbearance of mankind. They failed to pay the rent because Nature refused to reward their labor with her accustomed productions, and for this

calamity the landlords are flinging them out of doors upon the roads.

The papers of Ireland, as well as the London papers are daily filled with descriptions of the work now going on in that unhappy country of evicting those tenants who are unable to pay their rent to the last shilling. The landlord sues out a legal process, which is placed in the hands of bailiffs. This process is the service of a notice to vacate the premises within a certain number of days. A detachment of armed constabulary—a military police—accompany the process-servers. This is the first step. The second is, to take a military force and evict or expel the tenants and their families from the premises at the point of the bayonet. Everything upon the land has already been sold off to pay the rent. Now comes the expulsion of the unfortunate victims. The practice is, to take a whole estate at a time. All the defaulting tenants are notified at once, and are subsequently forcibly evicted as rapidly as the soldiery can do it. As soon as the family is thrust upon the roadside the cabin is leveled to the earth. The evicted, numbering hundreds of tenant-farmers and their families in each district, have no place to go to. They cannot rent or obtain other land. They cannot accept the shelter of other and more fortunate tenants, because the sheltering or harboring of evicted tenants is visited by a forfeiture of the leases of the charitably disposed. An evicted tenant becomes by Irish landlordism an outcast. Humanity is ignored; the men, women and children may die on the roadside, but they are not permitted to find shelter among other tenants on the estate. Homeless, houseless, in rags, their last cent and their last piece of property confiscated to pay rent, without food, they are put on the road to perish there, or to wander to the nearest almshouse, and there find the treatment provided for public paupers. All past experience has shown a heavy mortality among these evicted people.

This cruel, merciless work of eviction is now going on in various parts of Ireland. Each day adds its hundreds to the number of starving, homeless wretches who have

been unable to pay the rack-rents because of the general failure of the crop and fall in prices during two successive seasons. The land is covered with the rapidly-gathering pall of famine, and the military are enforcing with the bayonet the relentless demand for rent from the starving people.

What cannot fail to strike the world with astonishment is the heartless and indifferent tone of the London press. They publish from day to day the details of these heart-rending evictions, and express not a word of sympathy for the expelled, ruined tenants; not one word of remonstrance against the infamous cruelty of the acts. They cry aloud that the landlord is entitled to his pound of flesh. They admit that the failure to pay the rents is due to the failure of the crops. They confess that the tenants have not left themselves food enough to sustain life, but, like *Shylock* with his bond, they declare that the defaulting tenant must pay the rent or go upon the roadside. The military of the British Government is employed to enforce this expulsion, and not a paper in London has the humanity to utter one word of remonstrance against these cruel, brutal, murderous, and wholesale evictions of famine-stricken farmers from their little homes—their only shelter. The world cannot fail to look with wonder upon the spectacle of several hundred thousand people stricken with famine, within twelve hours' travel of London, and the British Government employing its military force to collect absentee landlords' rack-rent, expelling the people from their homes, and the English press as silent as death concerning the devilish cruelty. The English people are reputed to be humane, generous, and liberal. No appeal in behalf of suffering humanity falls unheeded on their ears. Why, then, does the English press address no word of appeal or remonstrance to these Irish landlords to stay this brutal work of eviction? Why this encouragement, by silence, of these eviction proceedings, when perhaps a few weeks more will witness how more effectually famine will rid the land of its occupants than even the Anglo-Irish armed constabulary?—*Chicago Tribune, Jan.* 25, 1880.

SKETCHES OF THE LEADERS OF THE LAND LEAGUE.

CHARLES STUART PARNELL.

Conspicuous among the Irish statesmen agitating for Land Reform is Mr. Charles Stuart Parnell, a member of the British Parliament. The family was founded in Ireland, by the removal there of an English clergyman, who was the father of Parnell, the poet, contemporaneous with Pope. A later descendant was, as is stated in a recent history of the family, "the last Chancellor of the Irish Exchequer." It is said that he received the offer of a Peerage if he would cast his vote in favor of the act of "Union," but refusing to do so, the loss of his high office came simultaneously with the overthrow of Irish liberty. In return he received from his fellow-countrymen the title of "Incorruptible,"—a title higher than any within the gift of Kings. Another was Sir Henry, a member of Lord Melbourne's Cabinet and an earnest advocate of Catholic emancipation—was raised to the Peerage as Baron Congleton. Lord Congleton's younger brother William Parnell, the grandfather of the "Home Ruler," married, in Ireland, a daughter of the Hon. Hugh Howard, cousin to the Duke of Norfolk, and through her Mr. Parnell is descended from Lord Chancellor Clarendon. His cousin, Lord Congleton, the present head of the family, resides on his Cheshire estate.

Commodore Charles Stuart, a man of Irish descent, of the American Navy, had one daughter, and at Washington this lady met John Henry Parnell, who was traveling in this country; the two were married, and at Avondale, Wicklow County, the present agitator, Charles Stuart Parnell, was born in June, 1846.

Mr. Parnell's education was begun at a private school conducted by a Protestant clergyman at Southampton, England, whence at the age of 11 he was taken back to Ireland and placed under a private tutor. Four years later he was sent to a private school in Somersetshire, England, to complete his preparation for college. While pursuing his studies here he was taken down with typhoid fever, and lay for weeks almost at the point of death. Since then he has never enjoyed the robust health of his earlier years. He grew rapidly, and was a tall and slender youth of 18 at the time of his matriculation at Cambridge University. Before entering the college where his father was educated, the latter had expressed a wish that Charles should study law, but the proposition was not received with favor. The bar had no charm for the young man, who declared that he would not care to be a lawyer unless he was certain of being a celebrated one. As a youth Mr. Parnell showed no particular interest in the affairs of Ireland, and when he discussed Irish politics with his sisters, frequently took the conservative side, to annoy them in a harmless way. This humor sometimes worried his mother, who, as she declares, has an American horror of toryism.

His serious interest in politics dates from the execution of the Manchester rescuers. Their terrible fate, it seems, determined him to enter Parliament as a "Home-Ruler." After consulting with his uncle, Charles Stuart, who then lived in Paris, he informed his mother of this intention, which met with no opposition on her part. Mr. Parnell's first appearance before the public was made in 1874, during which year he held the office of High Sheriff of the County Wicklow. At the same time he contested the County Dublin on the Catholic and National ticket, but was beaten by Col. Taylor, the Conservative and Protes-

tant candidate. Mr. Parnell, who had accepted the nomination in the full expectation of defeat, received about one-half as many votes as his opponent.

ELECTED TO PARLIAMENT.

The next year he ran for Parliament in County Meath against a Tory and a "Home-Ruler," and was returned by a large majority to succeed John Martin, the umquhile colleague of John Mitchel. In April, 1875, he took his seat in the House of Commons, and almost from the first provoked the hostility of his Conservative fellow members by speaking when he had anything to say, instead of listening patiently to older and more experienced men. The "obstruction policy," which he introduced into Parliamentary debates first attracted attention when he opposed the Prison bill introduced by the Government, and succeeded in carrying certain humane amendments. As he himself has often remarked, his system of persistent criticism and opposition would never have succeeded as it has, had it not been for the obstructive policy adopted toward him by the Conservatives.

Mr. Parnell's father died a few years ago, and his mother soon after returned to this country to live. In 1873 she was visited by her son, who spent something over six months on this side of the water. While here he visited New York, Philadelphia, Newport, Bordentown, and Alabama. His second and last trip to America was made in 1876, when, with John O'Connor Power, M. P., he presented to Congress an address from the Irish people which President Grant refused to accept. This visit was a brief one, lasting only about two months.

Mr. Parnell has, living four sisters and two brothers. Of the latter, the eldest, John Howard Parnell, has considerable property in the County Armagh, in the north of Ireland, which has come to him by inheritance; and he also owns an extensive farm in the State of Alabama. The youngest brother, Henry Tudor Parnell, who was educated for the bar, has recently purchased property in Co. Kilkenny. Charles himself has an estate in Co. Dublin and another in Co. Kildare. He has recently reduced his rents 20 per

cent., while his brother's property in Armagh, which is all leased out, returns at present but little interest. In the year 1874, Mr. John Howard Parnell contested the Co. Wicklow, and, though not elected himself, succeeded in defeating the Conservative candidate, a son of Lord Fitz-William.

JOHN DILLON,

who accompanies Mr. Parnell in his visit to America is a son of one of the most distinguished members of the Young Ireland party of 1848. He was possessed of considerable property in the County Mayo, and it was he who contributed the funds with which to establish the Dublin *Nation*. In 1848 he effected his escape, and reaching New York, engaged in the practice of law with a fellow-exile, Richard O'Gorman, who still adorns the bar of that city. On the release of O'Brien and John Martin, John B. Dillon returned to his native land, and afterwards became Member of Parliament for the County of Tipperary. He died in 1867. Such was the father of the companion and friend of Mr. Parnell. Mr. Dillon is quite a young man, of fine presence, and of considerable natural and acquired ability. He was educated in the Dublin Catholic University, and took a very prominent part in the debates of its historical society. During the Fenian excitement, while not himself a member of the organization, he sympathized strongly with its aims and objects, and expressed himself so freely, that it is said he was at one time expelled by the college authorities. The Rev. Mr. Woodlock was then rector, and he cannot be accused of any stronger national sentiments than his brother, who holds the very lucrative office of Recorder of the City of Dublin, as the gift of Her Most Gracious Majesty's Government. The differences between the college authorities and young Dillon were soon settled. Having completed his studies, he afterwards became a member of the Irish bar, and has, in a short time, acquired considerable practice. He is a close student, and a very fluent and forcible speaker.

Both he and his brother William, a practicing physi-

cian in Dublin, have taken a very prominent part in the Home-Rule and Land agitations, and are of the band of young men of good parts and literary attainments, whom Mr. Parnell has gathered around him in Ireland. Mr. Dillon might be called the member-elect for Tipperary, as he has been invited to contest the county by its patriotic electors. His acceptance of the candidacy is equivalent to an election. It is difficult, however, for a young barrister to attend to his parliamentary duties in London and make his way at the bar in Dublin. Mr. Dillon, however, inherits considerable property, and these are times when Irishmen must make many sacrifices for the sake of country. Mr. Parnell's hands must be strengthened; the do-nothings must give way to bold, active and able young men, and there is little doubt but Mr. Dillon will accept; so that one more will be added to the active party; and that Tipperary will be represented by the son of John B. Dillon, the patriot of '48.

JOSEPH BIGGAR, M. P.

The next man who suggests himself as a member of the Active party is Mr. Biggar. He it was who first went to the rescue of Mr. Parnell, and who has since been Mr. Parnell's most faithful lieutenant, if not most useful ally. Mr. Biggar is an Ulsterman, a Presbyterian, and a large and successful Belfast merchant. The *Observatore Romano*, one of the Italian Catholic newspapers, describes him as a "bacon seller"—as if bacon-selling were a disreputable business. Perhaps the Italian gentleman would think more kindly of Mr. Biggar were he a peanut-vender or an organ grinder, a member of the lazaroni or banditti. Mr. Parnell's first (Parliamentary) lieutenant is member for the County of Cavan, the only Ulster County represented by Home-Rulers. Though a Presbyterian, he has the entire confidence of the Roman Catholic Bishop and clergy, and has been endorsed by no less an authority than Archbishop MacHale himself. Indeed, there are no people in the world, perhaps, more tolerant than the young Catholics of Ireland, as has been proved in many a contested election, where they have returned a patriotic

Irish protestant in preference to a Whig Catholic, even though the latter had the endorsement and support of the Roman Catholic clergy.

In personal appearance Mr. Biggar is by no means prepossessing, being small, slight, sallow, and slightly deformed. He has wonderful pluck and nerve, and cares not for the opinion of any man, but does what he thinks is right and proper. His father, who is a large landed proprietor, at one time threatened to disinherit him on account of his extreme national opinions, but Joseph told the old gentleman to go ahead, that he could make his own living. The differences between father and son were soon healed, and Mr. Biggar will inherit a very large fortune, besides which he has amassed a considerable one on his own account. He is reported to have made up his mind to retire from business very soon, that he might devote his whole time to the service of Ireland. He is a positive terror to the House of Commons, being able, at all times, to talk against time. This wiry little Ulster Irishman talks, talks for hours in the most pronounced North of Ireland brogue (far-down brogue it is called). The House is impatient. Cat-calls, groans, hootings, and cries of 'vide, 'vide, have not the least effect on Mr. Biggar. He has an inveterate hatred of the do-nothings, and has snuffed out two or three of them at various times. Poor little O'Leary, who wants to be known as the Chevalier, he annoys beyond measure, by addressing him as Patrick O'Clery. The Queen's County, at his suggestion, adopts the Rev. Isaac Nelson, a Presbyterian minister, as their candidate, in preference to Mr. Digby, a high-toned Catholic landlord, and Sir George Bowyer, a kind of lay abbe, will be succeeded by Mr. Biggar's friend, John Ferguson, another Ulster Presbyterian, of the publishing house of Cameron & Ferguson. Mr. Biggar has the utmost confidence in and admiration for Mr. Parnell, and is always ready to defend him when assailed. He takes a great pride in being associated with his chief as the promoter of the obstructive policy, and his purse is always ready to back up his convictions.

JOHN O'CONNOR POWER, M. P.

The most able ally of Mr. Parnell is O'Connor Power, who was elected to Parliament from the County of Mayo, despite the exertions of the Catholic clergy, who supported Mr. Thomas Tighe, a local landed proprietor and a most excellent gentleman. Mr. Power is well known in this country, having visited it on a lecturing tour, and also with Mr. Parnell, to present the congratulations of the Irish Nation on the centennial anniversary of our independence. Mr. O'Connor Power is a forcible and eloquent speaker, and one of the best and readiest debaters in the House, far surpassing his leader in these particulars. He contributes largely to the London periodical press. His recent articles in the *Nineteenth Century* and in the *Fortnightly Review*, have attracted considerable attention, both because of the ability with which they were written, and their clear exposition of the purposes of the land agitation and the *active* policy. The member for Mayo is a young man, and his future promises to be very brilliant. He lacks the self-possession and calmness of Mr. Parnell, and becomes quite savage at the unseemly interruption of the House. He was connected with the Fenian movement and served his term in jail for participation therein. For this he is of course, very popular in Ireland, although some of the more radical members of the organization in this country are not satisfied at his adopting the policy of agitation.

W. HENRY O'SULLIVAN

is the tallest man in the British Parliament, being about 6 feet 6 inches in height. His business occupations are of the most varied character. He is a farmer, a hotel keeper, and owns a line of cars which ply between Killmallock and Limerick. Besides he is a financial agent for several insurance and monetary companies. He is also the principal agent in the South of Ireland for leading Scotch and Irish distilleries. His opposition to the Permissive bills, introduced into Parliament by Sir Wilfred Lawson and Mr. A. M. Sullivan, who are what the

late Mr. Hesing, or the present Mr. Raster would call *tempranzlers* and muckers, has won for him the reputation of being a drinking man; but the fact is, that like his chief, he is a disciple of Father Mathew, that is, a cold water man. A good story is told about Mr. O'Sullivan. While making a very fervid speech in defense of the rights (?) of the liquor dealers, he paused to moisten his lips with a glass of water. Judge of his astonishment when he found the liquid to be as fervid as his eloquence, a glass of the genuine having been substituted by one of his practical joking colleagues, probably Maj. O'Gorman. The house saw his dilemma and roared, but Mr. O'Sullivan went on with his defense of the dispensers of the ardent. The English newspapers represented the story the other way; *i. e.*, that Mr. O'Sullivan wanted whiskey to support his eloquence, and found it water. Mr. O'Sullivan is, as might be expected from his rather multifarious occupations, one of the best business men in Ireland, and has accumulated quite a fortune, and is essentially a self-made man.

During the Fenian excitement in 1865, Mr. O'Sullivan was thought to entertain dangerous designs against the peace of Her Most Gracious Majesty, and was confined for six months in the County Jail at Limerick. His son passed two years of probation at the same hospitable mansion, which seems ever open to patriotic Irishmen. Toward the close of the last Parliament, on the promotion of Monsell, one of the Keogh-Sadlier gang, to the peerage as Baron Emly, Mr. O'Sullivan was elected by an overwhelming majority to represent the County of Limerick, after the most determined opposition on the part of a rather curious combination of Catholic clergymen and landlords. The arguments used against Mr. O'Sullivan were of the most novel character. As was before stated, he is quite large, and rather awkward. He speaks with a rich Munster brogue, and Dean O'Brien, thought that Limerick County would be scandalized by being represented by a man who could not, on account of his ungainly manner and his provincial dialect, be admitted to London society. Now, if there is one thing more than another that the Irish people object to, it is to having

their members subjected to the demoralizing influence of London society, so the priest-landlord candidate got only about 600 votes out of a total of 8,500. He was a society man. It may be said, in justice to some of the Catholic priests, that many of them openly supported Mr. O'Sullivan, and that the Bishop of the diocese voted for him.

Mr. O'Sullivan, on account of his rather extensive business relations, is not a very regular attendant in Parliament, but is always at hand when Mr. Parnell is stirring up any slight unpleasantness, and is one of the latter gentleman's trusted friends and best backers.

FRANK HUGH O'DONNELL,

the member for Dungarvan, is a native of Galway, which he represented in the early days of the present Parliament; but being unseated on petition, he had sufficient influence with the constituency to procure the election of his college friend and companion, Dr. Ward, to the vacant seat. He claims descent from the O'Donnells of Tyrconnell, who gave much trouble to Queen Elizabeth and the English of the Pale. Mr. O'Donnell is a graduate of the Queen's University, Ireland, and is one of the best-informed men in the House of Commons. He has written some works—principally on educational topics—and is a constant contributor to the London periodical and daily press, contributing principally to the aristocratic *Morning Post* and the philosophic *Spectator*. Indeed, he was at one time sub-editor of the latter-named journal. He is also the London correspondent of several of the Hindoo newspapers, published in the native language, and recently received the public thanks of the editors of these papers for his course in relation to Indian affairs in Parliament. He is unquestionably the most troublesome member with whom the English Ministers have to deal.

His information on every measure introduced into Parliament is marvelous. He knows South Africa like a book; his information about Hindostan is as good as that possessed by any native; Australia and Canada, the commercial treaties and government, seem to be objects of his special attention, so that when any measure is brought

forward in relation to any of these places, he is always ready to criticise. No wonder the Ministers detest this rather effeminate and foppish young man, with the inevitable eye-glass, who criticises their every measure at such length, and with such perplexing frequency. So thoroughly unpopular is Mr. O'Donnell in the English House of Commons, that Mr. Knowles, the editor of the *Nineteenth Century*, was afraid to publish an article by him on "Socialism in Germany," although the subject had been furnished, and the article accepted, by the editor himself. Mr. O'Donnell published the rather frank letters which passed between him and Mr. Knowles, as a specimen of English fair play. He has taken little part in the land agitation, owing to a very serious case of sunstroke which occurred to him at Bolongue the past summer. His prodigious literary and parliamentary labors have told on his rather feeble constitution, and he has spent the entire winter in Paris, where he has recently created quite a sensation by the publication of a letter in the *Republique Francaise*. The letter calls on the Continental nations to elect a Congress to investigate the government of Ireland by England; denounces landlordism in the bitterest language, and stirs up matters generally. The English press are screaming with rage; the British Ambassador has asked M. Gambetta, the proprietor, to deliver up the manuscript to him, as the letter was printed without the name of the author, but simply as coming from an Irish member. M. Gambetta has, of course, refused the modest request, or to reveal the name of the author. But everybody knows that the letter was written by O'Donnell. Indeed, he makes no secret of the authorship. The latter is likely to be brought before the House of Commons, but that will not deter the member for Dungarvan from enlightening Europe, through the medium of the press, as to the real state of affairs in Ireland. The English have had their own way in that matter too long, thinks Mr. O'Donnell, who is very industrious, a thorough linguist, and now that his health is restored, will doubtless do some good service on the Continent, while his chief is pleading the same cause to the American nation.

THE NATIONAL LAND LEAGUE.

WHAT IRELAND ASKS.

IRELAND asks that the government of England shall so amend her land laws, as to enable those who cultivate the soil, and who live on it, to become the owners of the land upon the payment of the full value thereof. This was done in France under the same condition of circumstances; was done in Belgium, and various parts of Germany. As to the legal power of the British government to make this change in the land laws, and to establish peasant proprietorship in Ireland, there is no dispute in England. In a recent speech at Edinburgh, Mr. Gladstone, who was not committed to the policy, thus disposed of the question of legal power. Here is what he said upon the power of parliament over the subject:

"To a proposal of the kind I am not going to object on the ground that it would be inconsistent with the privileges of landed proprietors. In my opinion if it is known to be for the welfare of the community at large the legislature is perfectly entitled to buy out the landed proprietor. It is not entitled morally to confiscate the property of the landed proprietor more than the property of any other man; but it is perfectly entitled to buy out the landed proprietor if it may please, for the purpose of dividing property into small lots. I do not wish to recommend it, because I will show you the doubts in my mind about the proposition. But to the principle no objection can be taken. Those persons who possess large portions of the space of the earth are not altogether in the

same position as possessors of mere personalty, for personalty does not impose the same limitations on the action and industry and the well-being to the community in the same ratio as does the possession of land, and, therefore, I hold that compulsory appropriation, if, for an adequate public object, is a thing in itself admissible and even sound in principle."

IRISH LAND LAWS.

Mr. J. O'Conner Power, also a member of the English Parliament, thus states the oppression of the existing law and the remedy sought by the present agitation. The statement is taken from a publication made by him in the *London Nineteenth Century*, for December, 1879. He thus states the case:

The main cause of Irish poverty is not to be found in over-population, or in any want of energy or economy on the part of the Irish people, but in the system of land tenure imposed by Imperial conquest. Foreign competition and bad harvests—by which, in one year alone, according to the calculation of Mr. Dwyer Gray, Ireland has lost thirty millions sterling—have had one advantage, and that is, they have drawn attention in a striking way to the great evil of the system of tenant-at-will, the most demoralizing and degrading to which it is possible to reduce the working population of any country. It is hardly in the power of language to describe the many evil effects of this system. It has blasted the hopes, ruined the homes, and destroyed the lives of millions of the Irish race. It has stopped the social, political, and industrial growth of Ireland as effectually as if the country had been in a perpetual state of civil war; and no war has ever been more cruel in its incidents or operations toward those among whom it was carried on, than the war which Irish landlordism has waged against the people whose inheritance it usurped and whose property it has confiscated. "The worst fed, the worst clothed, and the worst housed people in Europe,"—this is the description which every impartial traveler who has seen the Irish people at home has given of them. Behold the result of the system of tenant-at-will and centuries of English rule!

A STATE OF SLAVERY.

Of the 600,000 tenant-farmers in Ireland, more than half a million, representing, with their families, about three million persons, have no security in their homes or in the business upon which they depend for their daily bread, but are at the mercy of a few thousand persons,—the lords of the soil of Ireland. Agriculture being the mainspring of the nation's wealth, the interests of the commercial and trading community are naturally dependent upon the industries of the farmers, and so it results that the fate and fortunes of more than five millions of people are in the hands of the small section, numbering not more than a few thousands. No system of government could possibly bring prosperity to a people so circumstanced. Even if they were endowed with all the attributes of political freedom, their social condition would still be a condition of slavery. They are the victims of a system clearly incompatible with social rights and industrial freedom. It may be necessary for me to explain here what I mean by "social right" and "industrial freedom." Social right may be defined in words which are to be found in the Declaration of American Independence, and I would define it in those words, as "the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness"; and industrial freedom, in the sense in which I use the phrase, is the right of the workers to enjoy the fruits of their own exertions, and to be safe in the pursuit of their industry from the rapacity of their neighbors. There is nothing more capable of proof than that the present land system of Ireland is opposed to the social rights and the industrial freedom of the Irish people as here understood. When a people die in large numbers of starvation in their own country, or fly from it because they cannot get enough to eat out of the food which that country has produced, and which is more than sufficient to sustain them, that people are denied the right to live; and if a people have not a right to live in their own land while it is rich enough to support them, they are deprived of liberty and the pursuit of happiness.

STARVING AMID PLENTY.

This is what took place in Ireland during the famine of 1846 and 1847. The people perished in the midst of food twice sufficient to sustain them, because the food they produced had to be exported in immense quantities to pay the exorbitant rents of the landlords. Nothing could more clearly demonstrate the low standard of living among the small farmers, and the small amount of the produce they were permitted to keep for their own use, than the fact that they were reduced to a dependence on the potato as their principal food. When that failed they had no resource. The rest of the vegetable food and nearly all of the animal food produced in the country became the property of the non-producing landlord class, and was exported to pay their dues. The bare statement of these facts reveals at once the appalling injustice of the system, but we must examine it further to fully realize its wickedness and the mischief which it has wrought. What can be more opposed to every principle ofwell-doing than a system which paralyzes industry, which puts a premium on idleness, which fosters improvidence, which generates servility, hypocrisy, and ignorance, which shuts out every gleam of hope of rising in the world; which entails perpetual drudgery and social dependence, and even invades the sanctity of the domestic relations? Such is the system of tenant-at-will under which 3,000,000 of the Irish people are condemned to wear out their lives.

It is not in the nature of things that the Irish cultivator should be as industrious as the peasant proprietor in the Channel Islands or on the Continent, for the former wants that which the latter possesses—security. The former is liable to eviction at the will and pleasure of a taskmaster; the latter is the undisputed lord of his own land and possesses "the magic of property which turns sand into gold." Mr. Mill well recognized the premium on idleness under the tenant-at-will system when he said that the Irish tenant was the only human being in existence who had nothing to gain by increased industry, and nothing to lose by increased idleness. Then there is

nothing so well calculated to make a man reckless and improvident as uncertainty in his position. It often harrasses the very life and soul of men of the highest moral fibre, and must be destructive of all order and economy in the lives of those less fortunately constituted. The struggling farmer, whose imagination is haunted by the alternative prospect of the poor-house or the emigrant-ship, has certainly a gloomy existence, bereft of comfort, encouragement, and aspiration. The mortal dread of the agent's frown or the landlord's slightest displeasure still characterizes the tenant-at-will, notwithstanding the bracing effects of public agitation, and shows what an atmosphere of servility and hypocrisy combined arises from the present unnatural condition of rural society in that country. But a system which so far taxes the industry of the people as to compel their children to work in the fields when they ought to be at school, is responsible for more than the physical misery which it inflicts. It generates ignorance, and thereby deprives the people of one of the most potent means of self-advancement.

A DEGRADING SLAVERY.

The Irish farmer is often obliged to set his children to work before they have had time to acquire the rudest elements of education, in order to turn their youthful labor to account in squeezing the rent and a scanty subsistence out of the farm. On some Irish estates, too, a tenant dare not harbor in his house a stranger, a poor person, or even a poor relative not immediately belonging to the family, and the Land Commission recently sent through Ireland by the *Freeman's Journal*, whose reports ought to be read by every one anxious to be acquainted with the facts of the present crisis, declares that on some properties marriages cannot be consummated without the sanction of the landlord or his agent! Surely this is slavery of the most degrading, intolerable kind, and the system by which it is upheld, an outrage on civilization. The whole history of Irish landlordism is a record of hardened cruelty, without a parallel in the social annals of any other nation. Edmund Spenser says in his "View

of the State of Ireland," that the landlords of his time "used most shamefully to rack their tenants." Swift repeats this accusation in his own day in the following language: "Another cause of this nation's misery is that Egyptian bondage of cruel, oppressing, and covetous landlords, expecting all who live under them should make bricks without straw, who grieve or envy when they see a tenant of their own in a whole coat or able to afford one comfortable meal in a month, by which the spirits of the people are broken and made fit for slavery." And even Mr. Froude is constrained to say: "The landlords in Ireland represent conquest and confiscation, and they have gone on with an indifference to the welfare of their tenants that would never be tolerated in England or Scotland."

In the reports of the Irish famine compiled by the Society of Friends, who earned the lasting gratitude of Ireland by their noble and generous efforts to save the lives of her people, there is a strong indictment against the landlord class for their gross neglect of duty in that terrible crisis; and it must then be affirmed that landed property in Ireland can show nothing in its origin or its history upon which to found a claim to the consideration of the Irish people, nor can they be expected to extend any further toleration to its unrestricted and mischievous power.

Any one closely examining the condition of the Irish land classes will discover that, contrary to the general rule elsewhere, it is the wealthier classes, the landlords, not the tenants, who show the greatest ignorance of economic principles. They are, as a class, the most listless, unenterprising, and non-producing section of the country, while at the same time they are the masters of its resources. See, for example, the enormous growth of absenteeism, which drains, directly and indirectly, no less than six millions annually out of Ireland, not a penny of which ever returns to benefit those by whom it is supplied. Six millions sterling a year! that is to say, a sum sufficient to support 100,000 workingmen and their families—500,000 persons—in decency and comfort. The action of the landlords has been very injurious to their

own interests, as well as to those of the farmers; for, though the value of property continued to rise steadily for many years before the beginning of the present depression, it would have risen much more rapidly and to a far higher point if the lords of the soil condescended to abate their feudal privileges, or if they were as anxious to perform the duties as they have been to enforce the rights of property. Under the present system it is the interest of the tenant to put as little into the soil and to take as much out of it as he possibly can. Under a system which would give him security in his holding and protection against exorbitant rents, the farmer would nurse his farm as the prudent merchant nurses his business. He would feel that it was his interest to put all his capital into it, confident that it would return to him in due time with a fair profit. Thus the price of land would be improved by the inducements which such a tenure would hold out to every incoming tenant in every case where a farmer had disposed of his holding. What a mockery of all received ideas of political economy it is to see fertile lands going out of cultivation in Ireland, and the Irish at the same time leaving their country in search of employment! This is not the natural result of supply and demand, for it is well known that the Irish people are warmly attached to their native land, and would never quit it in large numbers if they could manage to live at home. It is the result of landlordism, which blights the industry of the whole country, and which has during the last thirty years banished nearly 30,000,000 of the Irish race forever from the land that bore them.

> A million a decade! What does it mean?
> A nation dying of inner decay;
> A churchyard's silence where life has been,
> The base of the pyramid crumbling away;
> A drift of men gone over the sea,
> A drift of the dead where men should be.

Those who cry out against State interfence with the tenure of land forget that the present state of things in Ireland is the result of State interference. Irish land-

reformers only want the State to undo what the State has done. They only ask the State to restore the ancient rights to the tillers of the soil. The State abolished the old tenure by which the soil was held for the benefit of those who cultivated it, and allowed the usurpation of the rights of the cultivators by landlords. As the English conquest extended over Ireland the land system disappeared. The rights of the cultivators were confiscated as well as the property of the native land-owners, and to this double confiscation we trace the only title upon which Irish landlordism can rest its sacred pretensions.

THE LAND LEAGUE'S PROJECT.

The principle which underlies the Land Act of 1870 was the well-established principle that "there is no such thing as absolute property in land." It is not necessary, therefore, to go back on former discussions for the purpose of enforcing a principle which has found sanction in an act of Parliament. Starting from this principle, then, let us proceed to consider the proposal put forward by the National Land League as the only one calculated to effect a satisfactory and final solution of the Irish land question. The proposal, stripped of all ambiguity, is to abolish landlordism and make the cultivators the owners of the soil. This is undoubtedly a vast undertaking, the dimensions of which should be fully appreciated by those who have resolved to accomplish it. The labor and sacrifice of a whole generation, constantly exerting itself to promote this great object, would not be greater than it deserves, and the energy of the highest patriotism could scarcely be directed to a nobler end than that of bringing comfort and consolation and security to the humble firesides of the tillers of the soil. It is proposed that the State should take over the land, giving the landlords proper compensation, and settle the tenants upon it permanently as tenant proprietors. This proposal, considered in its financial aspect alone, will appear formidable to many people, for it is estimated that it would require £250,000,000 to carry it out. But no one imagines that it can be effected all at once by one financial transaction.

A loan for this sum of money could not be raised except at a rate of interest which would be much higher than it could be borrowed, as if borrowed in small sums and at intervals. On financial grounds, then, it seems more practicable and desirable that the scheme should be carried out gradually than that it should be attempted to realize it in one sweeping measure. Even if the money were forthcoming on easy terms, it could not be hastily applied to the purpose in view without much confusion arising from inexperience; and, perhaps, no little jobbery arising from the many interests involved, and the desire of many persons to be employed in executing work undertaken by the State.

THE MODUS OPERANDI.

Many difficulties incident to State interference in a work of this kind would be removed or considerably diminished by gradual operations which would give time to have the character of each step taken tested by its results; and on social grounds it seems not less desirable that the transfer of the ownership of the soil from a limited number to the great body of the people should be only gradually accomplished. It is evident from the terms of a resolution passed at the first meeting of the National Land League that its modus operandi is designed to lead gradually to the object in view,—the establishment of an occupier proprietary. This resolution declares: "That the objects of the League can be best attained (1), by promoting organization among the tenant farmers; (2), by defending those who may be threatened with eviction for refusing to pay unjust rents; (3), by facilitating the working of the Bright clauses of the Land act; and (4), by obtaining such a reform in the laws relating to land as will enable every tenant to become the owner of his holding by paying a fair rent for a limited number of years." It only remains then to push forward with the utmost energy those minor reforms framed to mitigate the evils of the existing system, such as the abolition of all artificial restrictions on the sale and transfer of land, the abolition of the laws of primogeniture and entail, the more efficient

working of the Bright clause of the Land act, and the reclamation and distribution of the waste lands, while keeping steadily in view the main object of emancipating the entire agricultural population from the power of landlordism. Large as the sum of money is which would be required to buy out the Irish landlords, the proposal to raise it should not excite the unreasonable indignation exhibited in some quarters; we know not how soon the Government may involve us in a war with Russia, which might cost that amount without doing one-hundreth part as much good, assuming it to be just and necessary, as the dis-establishment of Irish landlords would effect.

ADVANTAGES OF A PEASANT PROPRIETARY.

The advantages of a peasant proprietary over the system of landlord and tenant are being admitted more and more every day. The industrious application and thrifty management of the small owners of land in the Channel Islands, in France and Prussia, in Belgium, Holland, Switzerland, and Norway, are the admiration of all who have made themselves acquainted with rural life and labor in those countries. If we would see the brightest examples of cheerful, uncomplaining toil, we must visit those lands in which the husbandman is to be found, with his sons and daughters, cultivating his patch of land in the security of independent ownership. In those countries we shall find a comfortable and prosperous, if not wealthy, agricultural class, who are the best friends of social order and the bulwarks of national defense in every national emergency. Into such materials as these it is the ambition of Irish land-reformers to convert the masses of the Irish people who live by the cultivation of the soil. A great change in the social structure of Ireland is needed. No one who knows Ireland as it is can say that the social condition of the country is satisfactory. The gulf between enormous wealth and abject poverty is wider there than in any other part of Europe, and the enormously wealthy are only a few, while the abjectly poor are counted by millions. It is urged against the proposal of the Land League that it would involve the

destruction of the aristocracy, and that it is necessary to preserve their power as a counteracting force against democracy, which, in the absence of the landlord class, might attain uncontrolled supremacy. Those who take this view are evidently alarmed, and, as they must be anxious to make landlordism tolerable to the Irish people, they are not likely to contend any longer against the abolition of the arbitrary power of eviction and rack-renting. I cannot, however, admit that the accumulation of land in the hands of a few is indispensable to the preservation of a powerful upper class in any country, assuming such to be necessary. We shall always have varying social grades, some higher and some lower than the rest, and the highest duty of statesmanship is to endeavor to do justice to all. The power of landlordism, as it exists in Ireland, rests on a basis of injustice, and therefore it is doomed.

THE ARRESTS IN IRELAND.

Upon the first meetings being held in Ireland, the British government ordered the arrest of certain speakers who were charged with sedition. One of these was Michael Davitt, and from the London *Times* of November 29, we take the following report of Davitt's language, on which the charge of treason and sedition is founded :

"Why are we here to-day, on the Monday of the nineteenth century of civilization, protesting against an immoral system of land laws that has been swept away from the path of every other civilized people ? I say this is a question we should put to ourselves to-day, and we should give no indefinite answer. But, if it is true, I deny that you should draw upon that in this year, with impending famine and dire misfortune before us, in order to satisfy the greed and avarice of the landlords. If you have it, then I say look first to the necessity of your children, of your wives, and of your homes. If you have a charitable disposition to meet the wants of the landlord, give him what you can spare, and give him no more.

"I am one of those peculiarly constituted Irishmen who

believe that rent for land in any circumstances, prosperous times or bad times, is nothing more nor less than an unjust and immoral tax upon the industry of a people, and I further believe that landlordism as an institution is an open conspiracy against the well-being, prosperity, and happiness of a people; and I say that anything that is immoral, whether it be a rent or an open conspiracy of landlordism, has to be crushed by the people who suffer in consequence of it.

"Look at it from a purely commercial point of view, and how does it operate against the people in the country? Say that the 600,000 farmers in Ireland earn on an average £1, 10s each week, and some earn a great deal less. However, we will put £1, 10s as the average weekly earnings of the farmers of Ireland, and that would produce an aggregate sum of about £45,000,000 a year earned by 600,000 farmers in Ireland. Of that sum of £45,000,000, how much do you think 3,000 individuals, called landlords, exact for themselves every year? Mind, 3,000—about one-third the number of persons present at this meeting. Well, the 3,000 Irish landlords pocket the neat sum of £20,000,000, or nearly half the entire earnings of the 600,000 Irish farmers. But not only that. Not a single one of them ever puts a foot to plow or hand to spade to earn a penny of it. The farmers must labor from morn till eve to support themselves and their children, when in steps the lazy, unproductive landlord, and demands almost half the money so earned to sustain himself in the licentious and voluptuous life he very often leads—not in Ireland, but away in London, Paris, and elsewhere. Not only does this system rob you of half your earnings, but it robs Ireland, it impoverishes Ireland, and goes away to another country to enrich another people who never earned it; and are we going to tolerate any tinkering of this system? Are we here to listen to any proposal of fixity of tenure at fair rents with periodical valuations?

"I say that, in face of another impending famine too plainly visible, the time has come when the manhood of Ireland will spring to its feet and say that it will tolerate this system no longer. I say we are here to-day to pro-

claim our determination to work unitedly and to work unceasingly until all the restrictions that militate against the proper cultivation of the soil of Ireland and against the happiness and contentment of its people, are swept away, once and forever.

"We have got to stand on our just rights as given to us by Almighty God. He created this fruitful land of ours, and decreed that those of His people who should inhabit it, should live on the land by the fruits of their honest industry and labor. If they propose to you to send you out to Canada, or to Australia, or to Zululand, tell them you will not go; point to your own fruitful valleys and everlasting hills, and say that you will keep a firm grip, not only of your homesteads, but of Ireland, and this be your answer to these emigration schemes. Mr. O'Connor told you that it is probable the government might have Zululand in its eye when its officials and its organs talk about an emigration scheme, but I will tell you why I do not believe they meant that. There is a great similarity between the Irish pike and the Zulu assegai, and the English soldiers who went out to civilize the Zulus at the point of the bayonet found that the savage Africans knew how to handle the assegai almost as well as our ancestors knew how to handle the pike in '98. In conclusion, I would ask you not to be content with coming to these meetings and applauding sentences in connection with landlordism or the misgovernment of Ireland; but to work,—to co-operate together, in clubs and in protection societies, until there is such an overpowering organization throughout the whole of Ireland that will not only break down landlordism, but every other barrier that stands between the people of Ireland and their just rights."

PARNELL STATES THE CASE.

At a meeting held in Indianapolis on the evening of Wednesday, January 21st, 1880, Mr. Parnell made the following comprehensive explanation of the whole case now under discussion. He said:

"Many of you from Ireland will understand that the Irish land question is, with us, a very burning question,

indeed. It may be considered extraordinary to many Americans, inhabitants of a country where land is so very plentiful, that this Irish land question should have excited, from time to time, so much ill feeling and animosity; that such a struggle should have gone on in that country between the tenants on one side, who occupy the land, and the landlords on the other side who own it. As I have said, you in America have boundless tracts of land, and you say to us in Ireland, "Why don't you come out to America, and we will give you as much land as ever you want for nothing." Well, a great many of us have come from time to time. I suppose Ireland has sent more people, in proportion to her population, to America, than any six other European countries put together. In fact, by a calculation which has been made, I am told that quite one-third of the inhabitants of this country are either Irish born, or else descended of Irish born parents. So we all see that if emigration were the cure for the ills of Ireland, Ireland would be the most happy and prosperous country on the face of the earth, because, for more than a century we have been emigrating, and emigrating, and emigrating, until at one time it almost seemed as if there would be nobody left in Ireland to emigrate at all.

THE IRISH LAND SYSTEM.

"Now as to the Irish land question: The system of tenure that obtains in Ireland is what is known as the feudal system. It is one which gives the ownership of the soil to the landlords, who mainly live out of the country. It merely gives the right to the tenant of occupying those lands upon payment of a certain amount of rent, and upon a very uncertain tenure, indeed. The system of tenure in Ireland is this: The tenant is allowed to hold his farm upon a six months' notice to quit; and the rent at any time at the expiration of six months, may be altered by the landlord at his own will. You will see that that is a very uncertain tenure for a property like land. Land requires a great deal to be done before it can produce anything at all. These lands had been reclaimed

and made fertile entirely by the exertions of the tenants. The landlords had spent no capital upon them whatever. The tenants who have been upon them have reclaimed them, and made them fertile. They put all the improvements upon them which now exist. You will naturally say that a six months' tenure is a very uncertain tenure for a property like land. If at any time the landlord may come in at the end of six months and say to the tenant 'You must go off of this land; I won't even allow you to reap the crops you have sown or to dig the potatoes; I will give you no compensation for the buildings you have placed there, for the drains you have dug that have dried the land, or for the manures you have put in, or the fences you have made.' You will see that such a condition of tenure is not calculated, to say the least of it, to induce the tenants to lay out their industry in making these improvements.

"The tenants in Ireland, with one exception, have always held their farms on these uncertain tenures, and, worse than that, they have actually, from time to time, many of them, in large numbers, been dispossessed in this way. Their improvements have been confiscated, their rents have been raised enormously, so that in three-fourths of Ireland, among the tenant class—a class who are of such enormous importance for the well being of an agricultural community—there exists such a state of uncertainty that the tenants fear to cultivate the lands or to expend anything in improvements. I think I have demonstrated to you that the system of tenure is a very uncertain one in Ireland. It is a matter about which you, of course, have no experience; a matter that you cannot realize here where a man owns the land that he tills, and where his improvements are his own, and where nobody can step in and confiscate them. That is a natural system of ownership. Ours in Ireland is unnatural and an artificial system. At the present moment we are engaged in a very agrarian movement in Ireland, which is already become the greatest political movement that has ever taken place in that country since the repeal of the tithes, and which bids fair to entirely alter the present system

and kind of tenure there. What do we desire? We desire to make the tenants the owners of the soil with as little possible injury as possible to vested rights. The shout of communism has been raised against us. We are told we must not interfere with the property of others; that we are endeavoring to rob the landlords. I shall show you bye-and-bye, that we propose to compensate landlords far better than they deserve for the termination of their interests.

RIGHTS OF PROPERTY.

I shall also show you that there is no foundation for the cry that has been raised as regards the interference with the rights of property in this instance. First of all, we must bear in mind the very radical difference that exists between landed property and any other property. It is one of the first principles of the English law; one of the best settled principles; one which has been repeatedly sanctioned and acted upon by the Legislature, that the State may forcibly appropriate any landed property when it is shown that this appropriation is for the benefit of the community at large. That principle is daily acted upon in England and in America; also railroad companies in America and in England are entitled to take lands forcibly, without the owner's consent, and compensate for them. The cry of the rights of property can not there be raised, as it is for the public utility. In the same way we claim that in Ireland the State is entitled to take the land from the landlords, and to hand them to the tenants, provided we can show that the measure of public utility to be derived from that step is in proportion to the magnitude of it. We shall be asked, of course, for precedence; and it is quite right that where we propose a startling innovation upon the rights of property that we should be prepared to point to well-founded and well-known precedents.

THE OLD FEUDAL SYSTEM

existed in almost every country except Russia. There they had a very different system, which, however, was trenched in upon after a time. In almost every country

in Europe this feudal system of land tenure has existed; in other words, the land was owned by a few landlords and cultivated by the majority.

It is a very remarkable fact that in every European country where the feudal system of land tenure has existed, it has been found more or less unsupportable, and the State has stepped in in each case and taken the land away from the landlords and transferred it to the tenants. Take, for instance, the case of Prussia, which is, perhaps, one of the most remarkable examples that we have to quote. In Prussia the feudal system was entirely broken down. In the rest of Germany it has been partially trenched upon. In Italy it has also been attacked, and in part destroyed. I shall venture to detain you for a few minutes while I point out to you the steps which were taken by the king of Prussia to secure safety at the conclusion of the peace of Tilsit, when Prussia had emerged from an almost disastrous war. I can claim confidently that a great and radical change then made has contributed since in no small measure to the greatness of Prussia as a nation.

THE CASE OF PRUSSIA.

Prussia was then one of the weakest of countries. She is now the arbiter of continental nations. The king of Prussia at the peace of Tilsit, issued an edict by the address of a celebrated reformer, Stein, for the regulation of the relations between landlord and tenant. I will ask you to allow me to trespass upon your time while I read to you this very remarkable preamble:

"We, Frederick William, by the grace of God, king of Prussia, having convinced ourselves, both by personal experience in our own domains and by that of many lords of manors, of the great advantages which have accrued, both to the lord and to the peasant, by the transformation of peasant-holdings into property, and the commutation of the rents on the basis of a fair indemnity, and having consulted in regard to this weighty matter experienced farmers, ordain and decree as follows:

"That all tenants of hereditary holdings, i. e., in which

the lord of the manor is bound to select as tenant one or other of the heirs of the last tenant—whatever the size of the holding—shall, by the present edict, become the proprietors of their holdings, after paying to the landlord the indemnity fixed by this edict."

A further section provides:

"We desire that landlords and tenants should of themselves come to terms of agreement, and we give them two years from the date of this edict to do so. If within that time the work is not done, the State will undertake it."

Subsequently the State, upon failure of lords and tenants to come to an agreement, issued its bonds or debentures, bearing 4 per cent. interest, to the lords in payment of the purchase money, and received from the tenants a yearly sum amounting to 5 per cent. of the principal amount of these bonds. These yearly payments by the tenant to the State continued for 41 years, and by them in that time both principal and interest were discharged.

Subsequently the State, upon the failure of the landlords and the tenants to come to terms by agreement as provided in the act, stepped in and did the work itself. And this is the way in which it did the work: It issued to the landlords State bonds bearing 4 per cent. interest, for the landlords' interest in the land. That is to say the State valued the landlord's interest, and it said to them we cannot give you money because we are in a bankrupt condition, but we will give you bonds bearing 4 per cent. interest. The tenants ceased to pay rent from that moment to the landlords, but instead of the payment to the landlords they made a payment amounting to 5 per cent. on the capital to the State through the ordinary tax-gatherers; and at the end of 41 years this payment ceased, both principal and interest having been covered by this annual payment of 5 per cent. for the interest of the landlords in the lands as valued by the State. At the end of that time the tenant had nothing more to pay, and had his land for his own. That was the solution of the Prussian land question.

But you will be surprised when I tell you that the Prussian system of land tenure was every way superior to ours. One of the leading newspapers of Boston, after I had discussed this system of land tenure, stated that "it was not a fair comparison to draw, because the tenants in Prussia were serfs, and in Ireland they are not." If the tenants in Ireland are not serfs, I don't know what they are. The newspaper was wrong again, even though it was a leading journal of "the Hub of the Universe." The class of persons, tenants, whom this legislation affected, were not serfs; but they hold on a condition of tenure so superior, as regards the tenant, to the condition of the tenant in Ireland, that we in Ireland would have gladly welcomed, and almost now would gladly welcome the conditions of the tenure of the Prussian tenant before this legislation took place, in exchange for the present system of land tenure in Ireland. In Prussia the landlord could not raise his rent; the landlord could not dispossess his tenant; the tenant was permitted to bequeath his property to his children, or to whomsoever he pleased. In Ireland they have none of these advantages. Everything depends upon a six months' notice.

EXAMPLE OF RUSSIA.

In Russia the serfs originally owned the land, and they had a very perfect system of communism, or government by villages. The system of government by communes or villages in Russia is one of the most perfect systems. It did not consist in sharing everybody's property among everybody else. This system was broken in upon by the nobles, and they made serfs of the peasants. Alexander, seeing the great evils which existed from this condition of serfdom, decided that the peasants should own the land they tilled. The land in Russia was held partly by nobles and partly by serfs. The serfs were compelled to do three days work in the week for the nobles; then they were allowed to till the land which they occupied during the remaining three days of the week, but they were at the complete mercy of the nobles, who directed them as to how they should till the land, and held them in fact as

serfs. Alexander decided that this state of serfdom should cease, that the serfs should no longer be compelled to labor for the nobles, and that they should own the land that they were in occupation of, and pay the landlords, instead of the original forced service that they used to pay the landlords, a certain rent per annum, and this rent was fixed at a very low figure, indeed, something like two or three shillings per acre. Alexander also provided that the tenants might purchase at this rent and become owners of their lands—purchase the rent by paying the landlords sixteen times the yearly amount of rent. That is to say, they might buy out the interest of the nobles as regards the receipt of this rent by paying them sixteen years' rent. They also provided that the government should advance to the tenant desirous of thus purchasing, four-fifths of the purchase money required. English journals and newspapers are in the habit of decrying Russia as the home of every description of despotism. But the land system of Russia is now, perhaps, the most perfect in the world. The people own the land, and they till it in little communities or villages. Each village governs itself; and, although we hear of Russia as a great despotism, a system of local government has been carried there to the most perfect and complete effect.

We say to the English Government, this Irish land question has been going on for a long while. The evils to Ireland and her people have been incalculable. They prevent the soil from being properly tilled. Ireland can produce three times as much food as it now produces if there was a sensible system of tenure like that. I will ask the English Government to step in, either as the king of Prussia did, or as the Czar of Russia did, and enable the tenants to become owners upon the same terms and conditions. We don't care which way you proceed. You may either give your State obligations to the landlords, in termination of their interest, or you may pay them in hard cash. That is a matter for your own consideration. Probably the English Government would prefer to pay the landlords in hard cash; and the Legislature has already contemplated—nay, more—sanctioned

the principle that it is right that the tenant shall own the land. The Bright clause of the land act was passed in 1870 for the purpose of enabling tenants to become the owners of land. That provided that the Government might advance two-thirds of the purchase money to the tenants who desired to purchase, but the radical difference between these clauses and the methods adopted by the kings of Prussia and Russia, was that these clauses only contemplated the voluntary sale by the landlords. In Prussia and Russia the landlords were forcibly expropriated. Of course it will take a long time to induce the Irish landlords to sell, and we think we are entitled to ask the State to come in and forcibly appropriate the land, as was done in Russia and Prussia.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, I don't think I could do better than to conclude by reading to you a scene which has just taken place in Ireland in connection with this land movement, which will show you the terrible condition of our people, and the frightful sufferings they are undergoing, and the determined struggle they are making for the soil of their native land.

RESISTING THE PROCESS-SERVERS.

The actual scene of this business was the village of Carraroe, which is on the coast, about twenty miles from the town of Galway. The local police anticipating the popular movement, occupied the house before the arrival of the crowd, and thus frustrated their intentions. Messengers were dispatched to the station at Spiddal, five miles distant, asking for reinforcements. These arrived during the evening, and the police remained on the premises all night. Meanwhile the telegraph wires had been put in operation, and the next morning an additional detachment of fifty constables arrived on the scene. In the midst of this little army Fenton issued from the house to execute his legal mission. The first house visited was that of William Flaherty. Women surrounded the door, and as Fenton advanced to effect service they clutched the process and tore it to shreds. The police then charged all around with their sword bayonets, wounding

several severely. The women were bayoneted right and left, and one of them, Mrs. Conneally, sustained such injuries that the last rites of the church had to be administered to her by Rev. P. J. Newell, the Roman Catholic priest of the place, who was an eye-witness of the scene. Rev. Mr. Newell, it may be mentioned, had exerted himself to prevent any resistance on the part of the people, and previous to the charge he addressed them in Irish, urging them not to interfere. The police then proceeded to the cabin of a man named Conneally, about three hundred yards distant. They smashed open the door, which was closed, and service was effected. James Mackie's house was next visited. The women again surrounded the door and endeavored to wrest the process from Fenton. The police charged a second time indiscriminately, knocked some of the people down, and, it is stated, bayoneted one man while on the ground unmercifully. Up to this the men had not interfered beyond crowding round, and no missiles were thrown at the constabulary; but now sticks and stones were freely used, and a terrible melee ensued. The police became much excited, not unnaturally, and at last fired some shots over the heads of their assailants. Then the process-server attempted to deliver the document. The women, as before, snatched it out of his hand and destroyed it. Sub-inspector Gibbons rushed into the house, and as he advanced to the hearth Mrs. Mackie lifted a blazing turf and smashed it on his neck. Smarting from the burning, the officer rushed back to the door, and in the struggle his sword was knocked out of his hand. The commanding officer considered that the situation was now too critical to act without the presence of a magistrate, whose orders would relieve the constables of the legal responsibility of a conflict with the peasantry. Accordingly the whole force was withdrawn and concentrated at the police barrack in the village, where the process-server remained for protection.

Ladies and gentlemen, just consider what was attempted to be done there. These people had been paying back rents for years and years. And the great depression in

value of agricultural products, owing to the enormous quantity of beef which you are sending over from this country, it has become an impossibility for them to pay these rents; and they applied to their landlords for an abatement of 25 per cent., which they brutally and inhumanly refused to grant. They said: If you don't pay me I will evict you from your holdings, yourselves, your wives and your families—all shall go out. The roof shall be torn from over your heads. Your furniture shall be broken up and the walls of your houses shall be levelled. The little feed that you have shall be forcibly taken from you, in order to help you pay your rent, if I can get anybody to buy that feed; if I can not I shall burn it rather than you shall have it to eat. This is the prospect before the people, in order to save themselves and families from starvation. They were compelled to ask their landlords for a very small abatement in their rent. You will agree with me that they exhibited a remarkable degree of courage, judgment and respect for the law, until the policemen made the attack by bayoneting the women. When the men saw their wives and daughters bayoneted in this savage manner, they could not stand it any longer, although they had nothing in their hands—no weapons but shilalahs—they behaved with the courage of their race; because they threw themselves on the constabulary in this unarmed condition, and gained a splendid and gallant victory. No; believe me, the blood of these poor women has not been shed in vain; and from that blood, will spring up the movement which will sweep away this accursed system.

I ask you, people of this prosperous and wealthy America, to help us in the way that you can. A horrible famine is attacking this people. They have the police and all the armed force of the Government in front. They have famine in the rear. You can stave off the famine. You can at least secure their spirit from being broken by that physical weakness which must come of their hunger. You can send from the bountiful crops that the Almighty has given you, plenty. I am sure, living in a free country, that you will think it is almost

your duty to support Ireland at home. All of you who are Irishmen will remember with pride that you came from a country that has never forgotten its rights; that on every field, when contending against the armed power of British might or wrestling with the still more deadly, though silent famine and pestilence, our countrymen have shown that they understand that they are inheritors of a great and untarnished fame. We are in earnest in our work. We intend not to stop or falter one inch or one iota, and not to be turned aside from our path, because we feel that we are going to win in this great fight. We ask you to save our people from this terrible suffering. You helped us in 1845, 1846 and 1847. Public opinion of this country has been of enormous importance to us. It has concentrated the attention of the whole world upon us. You, my friends, have come forward and helped us generously to-night, and shown your appreciation for the sufferings of our unfortunate people, who are going through with a heroism that has never been equaled. You have shown and will continue to show your appreciation of these sufferings by practical aid and sympathy."

EMIGRATION THE LANDLORD'S CURE.

A St. Louis newspaper editorially approved of the claim of an Irish landlord who, in a published letter, asserted "that the present is but a pronounced form of a distress which is never totally absent from Ireland, and which can only be prevented or diminished in the future by the withdrawal of the redundant population to other countries. The soil of Ireland has long been over-worked. It is now, in many parts, almost exhausted. It cannot support the population. There is no prospect of increasing the manufacturing industries of that country, and its agricultural resources are not equal to the demands of its people. Hence emigration is the only remedy."

The *Daily News*, of Chicago, in its issue of Jan. 28th, 1880, thus ably answers these misrepresentations of facts easy of demonstration: "The humanity of this is only equalled by the supercillious self-sufficiency with which

it is advocated. Why should emigration be the only relief for Irish distress? Why should Irish distress be the only distress for which emigration is the sovereign panacea? Emigration is never recommended for distress in England, Scotland, France, Belgium, Russia, Italy, or, in fact, any other European country."

The St. Louis editor says that the soil of Ireland has long been overworked; that it is now in many parts almost exhausted; that it cannot support the population. These statements are totally and maliciously false. The leading products of Ireland in 1858 and 1871 were:

	1858.	1871.
Wheat, qrs	1,746,464	705,939
Oats, qrs	8,953,541	7,410,814
Barley, qrs	802,028	965,709
Potatoes, tons	4,892,225	4,218,445
Turnips, tons	4,364,788	4,246,332
Mangel wurzel, tons	464,423	761,863
Hay, tons	2,701,006	3,315,525
Horses, No	610,717	530,353
Cattle, No	640,201	1,566,149
Sheep, No	3,487,785	4,330,947
Pigs, No	1,402,812	1,456,961

These figures show a decline in some products, but an immense increase in others.

The population in 1851 was 6,553,291, and in 1871 only 5,412,377. The value of the live stock in Ireland in 1870 was no less than $177,592,390. A vast number of these cattle are exported to England. We have before us the *Cork Constitution* of January, 1880, which gives the export of live stock to Great Britain for the week ending January 3, at 8,760 cattle, 9,141 sheep, 11,090 hogs, 170 horses, and 3 asses; a total of 29,166 head. The total for the preceding week was nearly the same number. This would be an aggregate of 1,500,000 cattle of all descriptions in the course of the year, In 1855 the exports of grain to Great Britain were 1,980,397 quarters of oats and oat-meal, and 170,000 quarters of wheat; 214,636 oxen, 8,162 calves, 489,494 sheep, and 254,054 hogs; to foreign countries 292 cwt. of bacon and ham,

7,943 barrels of beef and pork, 17,475 cwt. of butter. Immense quantities of butter, eggs, bacon, hams and other products of the soil are also exported to Great Britain. So that, while the population has diminished over 1,000,000 since 1855, the exports of products are constantly increasing.

Do these facts, gleaned from the records, show that the land is deteriorating? That the soil is over-worked or exhausted? That it cannot support the population? On the contrary, they give the lie to all such statements, and prove that it is some inherent political or social cause which is at work to prevent a just distribution in the country itself of the profits of its labor. O'Connell used to declare, and to prove it by the statistics, that Ireland produced enough in one agricultural season to support the entire population for five. Its capabilities are greater to-day than they were in the Great Liberator's time. But, the truth is, the products are exausted, in order to sustain the drain of absenteeism and the exactions of the landlords.

As to manufactures, they have largely increased in the northern part of the island, where Ireland's specialty, linen, is manufactured in manner and style nowhere else excelled, if equaled. But in other manufactures, the keen competition of England, the want of capital—one of the results of absenteeism—and the unjust discrimination of Great Britain against the country in former years, has kept down nearly all efforts in this direction. But Ireland has inexhaustible mines of anthracite and bituminous coal, of iron, copper, lead, and even silver and gold. That there is no present prospect of greatly developing these industries is true, because the villainous landlord and absentee systems are eating out the vitals of the country's industries.

This explains the mystery and sorrow of the fact that such a country remains but half utilized by the industrial energies of its inhabitants, and that over a large proportion of its surface Ireland yields only poverty to tens of thousands who should be among the most happy and prosperous people on the earth. A climate mild and

moist from the influence of the Atlantic, from the hill ranges in every maritime county, which condense the sea vapor into rain, and from the humidity due to peat bogs occupying a seventh part of the superfices of the island, is uncongenial for the ripening of full harvests of bread corn; and, indeed, the low summer temperature and the prevalence of cloud, especially in the south and west, render the maturing of wheat, and also of fine malting barley, precarious. But these atmospheric conditions favor the growth of oats, of green forage, roots and grasses, and of natural pasture in profusion. Ireland is not formed to be a granary; nature makes it a meadow, a dairy, and a stall. In part, also, it is a garden of vegetables and fruits. Here is a country which should at least be a paradise of live stock,—a land flowing with milk, if not with honey. If the profits of agriculture are insufficient for the well-being of the population, it is certainly not the quality of the soil which is to blame; for no one acquainted with the soils of Ireland will class them generally as inferior to the light sands and poor clays of Flanders, or will compare their natural fertility unfavorably with the arable and pasture of Denmark or of Holland.

The lack of agricultural prosperity cannot be attributable to an undue pressure of the Irish population upon the limits of the cultivated land. So far as general average is concerned, the available area is not below that of other countries where the agriculture is extolled for its excellence. While in England 24,500,000 out of 22,500,000 acres of total area have been brought under crops and grass, in Ireland, 15,350,000 out of 20,750,000 acres are under management, and this amounts to an average of two and three-fourths acres for each head of the population. In Belgium the quantity of cultivated land is only one acre per head; in Great Britain it is one and one-quarter acres; in Holland one and one-third acres; and up to three and one-quarter acres per head in Denmark. An excess of inhabitants in proportion to the capabilities of the country for maintaining them can not be said to distinguish Ireland. Judging by the example of

Kingdoms in which it is admitted that the cultivators of the soil thrive, it appears probable that Ireland might support in comfort a population more numerous than the existing 5,412,377, who in parts of many counties are on the verge of starvation whenever Providence visits them with an unpropitious season.

There is enough cultivated land in Ireland to be divisible into holdings averaging twenty-nine acres for each of the existing occupiers; and hence there can be no absolute necessity why a more ruinous parcelment of occupations should obtain than we find in Denmark, where the holdings average thirty-two acres each, or in the small farm provinces of Belgium, where they average little more than twenty acres each. Here, however, a remarkable inequality exists in the distribution of a total area which, if equitably apportioned, might be found ample. Out of the 481,000 occupiers in Ireland holding more than a single acre each in the year 1878, there are 207,000 holding above one and not exceeding fifteen acres, and of these, 60,000 occupy not more than one to five acres each. The number of occupiers with more than fifteen and not exceeding thirty acres is 124,000. And with 331,000 farmers holding from over one up to thirty acres each there remain only 150,000 farmers occupying above thirty acres; nearly half of these—namely, 66,000—having farms of over thirty up to fifty acres. Farmers of over fifty up to 100 acres number 51,000; only 21,000, or about 4 per cent. of the farmers of Ireland, have occupations of over 100 up to 200 acres; and but 11,000 farmers more than 200 acres. Probably about half of all the cultivated land is in the hands of small occupiers of from over one to not more than fifty acres each; while the agricultural condition of a third of Ireland is revealed and tested by the condition of the little occupations of from over one to not more than thirty acres each. Grave misappreciation of the real state of Irish husbandry would arise from taking it to be represented mainly by the classes of farms which English tenants would regard as large or medium-sized, or worthy of the name of farms at all; yet such are those commonly visited for the purpose of acquiring

information as to the character and position of Irish husbandry.

The Irish land agitation has been confined to the Western and Southern districts of Ireland, and resistance to the service of ejectment processes of the merciless landlords, and subsequent evictions to the Connemara regions in the counties of Mayo and Galway. The agitation has, however, extended into the Ulster counties of the North, where it is sure to be conducted in a more systematic, independent, and unyielding manner than heretofore. The Protestant farmers of Armagh and Antrim are combining to resist eviction from their farms, and it is certain that if wise counsels prevail among the landlords they will not be in haste to enforce their demands. The bailiffs, process-servers, and policemen, who form the "crowbar brigade," will find it no easy task to evict the sturdy Presbyterian yeomen of Ulster. There they will have no unarmed, hungry, spirit-broken tenantry to contend with. The descendants of the defenders of Derry, and of those who kicked the crown of the cowardly, faithless, and bigoted Stuarts into the Boyne, will not trust to Providence or to women to defend their homes.

It may be that the landlords, blinded by their own cupidity, will press their unrighteous claims, and that the Tory Government, lost in the mazes of their foreign policy, will be foolish enough to back them up. What the consequences may be in such a case, it is hard to say, but the action of the Dungannon Convention of 1781, and of the volunteers of '82, who hung tablets from their gun barrels bearing the motto "Free Trade or ———," is not a matter of so remote date that one cannot predict that the Protestant Ulster farmers will resist to the bitter end. These men are of a race of whom our own historian, Bancroft, wrote: "Their training had kept the spirit of liberty and the readiness to resist unjust government fresh in their hearts." "Their experience and their religion alike bade them to meet oppression with resistance." Unlike the farmers of the South and West, the Ulster farmers have the means of resistance, for, esteeming it

the first privilege of freemen "to have and bear arms," they have persistently and successfully resisted all attempts of the English government to disarm them. In the various "arms" and "insurrection acts passed by the British parliament, the inhabitants of the northern counties have been and are exempt from the operation of the disarming statutes. That the landlords respect a determined and firm attitude, if they do not fear it, may be gathered from the fact that in Tipperary and Westmeath, where the "wild justice of revenge" doctrine prevails, there have been scarcely any evictions for a dozen years. It is hardly possible, then, that there will be any serious attempt to throw the Ulster tenants on the highways; and, did the Catholic Irish exhibit the same spirit of determination and union, there is every reason to think that heart-rending scenes would not be so numerous as they seem to be in the Celtic districts of Ireland.

The legislation of recent years, particularly the legislation of Mr. Gladstone's Administration, has done much to obliterate all sectional, race, and religious animosities in Ireland, and a spirit of mutual toleration has begun to prevail between the Catholics and Protestants, which is a good augury for the future of that unhappy, plundered, and oppressed country. The community of interests and better acquaintance with each other which will result from united political action, will do much to extend this spirit.

So it is devoutly to be wished that the time is not far distant when Ireland may be a united people, whom it will not be safe for a Tory Government or rack-renting landlords to oppress and tread under foot.

The advent of Mr. Gladstone to power, which appears likely to follow the next election in Great Britain and Ireland, will be the inauguration of a series of measures which will realize Peel's policy of "establishing between England and Ireland complete equality in all civil, municipal, and political rights, so that no person viewing Ireland with perfectly disinterested eyes should be enabled to say a different law is enacted in Ireland, and, on account of some jealousy or suspicion, Ireland has curtailed or mutilated rights." When such shall be the case,

and when there has been effected a complete and radical change in the system of land tenure and ownership, there will be no need for the Irish people to be periodical mendicants, and their country the scene of misery, squalor, and anarchy. The determined attitude already assumed by the Presbyterian tenantry cannot but hasten these good results. Men of their race and blood, according to Bancroft and Froude, were the first to declare for the separation of the American Colonies from the "Mother Country." May not the present position of these men indicate and betoken the dawn of a brighter era of comparative independence for themselves and their less determined countrymen?

GAZETTEER OF IRELAND.

BY COUNTIES, CITIES, BOROUGHS AND TOWNS; SHOWING THEIR LOCATION, LENGTH, BREADTH, AREA IN ACRES, CULTIVATED AND UNCULTIVATED LANDS, POPULATION, GOVERNMENT, MINERAL RESOURCES AND PRODUCTIONS, AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE, MANUFACTURES, VALUE OF PROPERTY, ETC., ETC.

ANTRIM COUNTY.

ANTRIM, a maritime county of Ulster. Boundaries: N. the Atlantic; E. the northern channel; S. Down; W. Lough Neagh and Londonderry. Length, N. and S., 56 miles; breadth, E. and W., 30½ miles; comprising an area of 762,079 acres, of which 631,050 are arable, 72,065 uncultivated, 6,717 plantation, 1,908 in towns, and 52,248 under water; off the north coast are Rathlin and Ragherry islands and the Skerries. On the Maiden Rocks, off Larne Bay are two light-houses, showing two fixed lights; the principal bays are Belfast Lough and Lough Larne; the subsoil is basalt and trap, forming the Giant's Causeway; on the N. coast, clay, slate and limestone; there is also coal at Ballycastle; there is also salt mines at Duncrue, Carrickfergus, the produce of which is of superior quality. Large beds of iron-ore have recently been discovered in the hill region extending from Larne to Cushendall, which are likely to prove of great importance. The ore is shipped from Larne, Glenarm and Carn Lough and Red Bay. One-third of the county is mountain, not rising more than 1,000 feet above sea level, and declining from the sea

coast towards Lough Neagh in the S. W.; the river Bann forms the W., and the Lagan forms the S. boundary of the county. The Lagan canal connects Lough Neagh with Belfast Lough. Bogs are large and numerous. The staple commodity of this county is the spinning of linen and cotton yarns, and linen and cotton weaving. The county is divided into 14 baronies, 78 parishes, and 1,741 town lands, having a population in 1871 of 404,015, or 85,030 families, inhabiting 73,931 houses, also 3,220 houses uninhabited and 307 building; it is in the Diocese of Connor. The principal towns are the parliamentary borough of Belfast, including the suburb of Ballymacarrett; population of 1871, 174,412; the county of the town and parliamentary borough of Carrickfergus, 9,397; parliamentary borough of Lisbon has a population in the county of 8,302, and the remaining inhabitants, 1,024, are in Down county.

The county returns 6 members to Parliament; 2 for the county at large; constituency 10,888, with 21 polling places; 2 for Belfast borough, constituency 18,963; and for each of the boroughs of Carrickfergus and Lisbon, 1 each; constituencies, 1,351 and 611. The baronies are: Antrim Lower, Antrim Upper, Belfast Lower, Belfast Upper, Corry, Dunluce Lower, Dunluce Upper, Glenarm Lower, and Upper Kilconway, Massereene, Lower, Massereene Upper, Toome Upper, Toome Lower. The towns are: Ballymena, Larne, Legoniel, Ballymoney, Antrim, Bally castle, White Abbey, Portrush, Whitehouse, Ballyclare, Bushmills, Glenarm, Ahoghill, Greencastle, Broughshane, Randalstown, Portglenone, being in Co. Derry, Cornlough, Dunmurry.

See Belfast under Boroughs and Cities.

ARMAGH COUNTY.

Armagh, is in Ulster. Boundaries: N. Lough Neagh; E. Down; S. Louth; W. Monaghan and Tyrone. Length, N. and S. 32 miles; breadth, E. and W. 20 miles, comprising an area of 328,086 acres, of which 265,243 are arable, 35,117 uncultivated, 8,996 plantation, 778 towns and 17,942

under water. The surface is hilly, rising into mountains in the S. W., where the highest point of Slieve Gullion is 1,893 feet above the sea; the Newry Canal skirts the county on the E.; the Ulster R. R. is extended from Belfast to Monaghan. The soil is fertile with much bog. Combined with agriculture is a weaving of cotton and linen. But the latter has long been the staple manufacture. The county is divided into 8 Baronies: Armagh, L. Fews, U. Fews, O'Neiland, E. O'Neiland, E. & W. Orier, U. Orier, L. & U. and Tiranny. It has 28 parishes and 970 town lands; a population in 1871 of 179,260 or 36,247 families inhabiting 34,429 houses, also 1,583 uninhabited, and 32 building. It is mostly in Armagh Archdiocese; the principal towns are the county towns, city, and Parliamentary borough of Armagh, population in 1871, 8,946, and a part of the Parliamentary borough of Newry, having a population of 5,321, and remaining proportion with 8,837 inhabitants, is in County Down. The county returns three members to Parliament, two for the county at large, constituency 7,156, with 50 polling places, and one for Armagh City, constituency 584.

The towns are — Lurgan Portadown, Bessbrook, Keady, Tanderagee, Markethill, Newtown Hamilton, Darkley, Richhill, Crossmaglen.

See Armagh under Boroughs and Cities.

CARLOW COUNTY.

Carlow, an inland county in Leinster. Boundaries: N. Kildare and Wicklow; E. Wicklow and Wexford; S. Wexford; W. Kilkenny and Queens. Length N. and S. 29 miles; breadth E. and W. 20½ miles, comprising an area of 221,343 acres, of which 195,831 are arable, 21,302 uncultivated, 3,075 in plantation, and 505 under water. The surface is generally level except the baronies which adjoin Wicklow, and which partake of its hilly character. On the western side of the river Barrow, the Colliery range extends from N. to S. through the barony of Idrone W., some of the hills rising to a height of about 1,000 feet above the sea, which, being in some places

wooded and cultivated to the top, form a beautiful landscape. On the eastern side a succession of fertile table land extends to Borris, and on the S. E. is Mount Leinster, attaining a height of 2,604 feet. The Slaney flows through the county, as also the Barrow, which skirts it on the west. The northern part separating it from the Queen's County, the middle from its own barony Idrone W., and the southern part from the county of Kilkenny. The staple trade is in corn, flour, meal, butter and provisions. The county is divided into 7 baronies, Carlow, Forth, E. Idrone, W. Idrone, Rathvilly, L. St. Mullins, U. St. Mullins, and into 35 parishes, 12 parts of parishes, 597 town lands, having a population of 51,650 or 10,355 families ; inhabiting 9,701 houses, also 226 uninhabited, and 29 building. The county is in Leighlin Diocese. The principal town is the county town, Parliamentary borough of Carlow, part of which is called Craigue, is in the Queen's county, population, 7,842. The county returns three members to Parliament—two for the County at Large, Constituency 2,213, with nine polling places, and one for Carlow borough, Constituency 298.

THE TOWNS are Bagnalstown, Tullow, Leighlinbridge, Hacketstown, Borris.

See Carlow under Boroughs and Cities.

CAVAN COUNTY.

AN inland County in Ulster. Boundaries: N. Fermanagh and Monaghan; E. Monaghan and Meath; S. Meath and Westmeath and Longford; W. Longford and Leitrim. Length S. E. and N. W. 51 miles; breadth N. and S. 28 miles, comprising 477,360 acres, of which 375,473 are arable, 71,918 uncultivated, 7,325 plantation, 502 in towns, 22,142 under water. The surface is undulating, with mountainous ranges in the N. There are indications of coal, iron, copper and lead, and numerous mineral springs, of which the Swanlinbar is the most celebrated. The soil is light and pure, except along in the courses of the rivers. Lakes are numerous, many highly picturesque. The occupations are chiefly agricul-

tural. The linen trade was carried on here extensively, and there are still many bleach-greens. The country is divided into 18 Baronies: Castlerahan, Clonkee, Clanmahon, Longhtee U., Longhtee L., Tullygarvey, Tullyhaw U. Tullyhunco L., and contains 36 parishes and 1,980 town lands, with a population of 140,735, or 27,267 families, inhabiting 26,364 houses, also 535 uninhabited, and 30 building. It is chiefly in Kilmore Diocese. The county returns 2 members to Parliament, the Constituency 6,276, with 18 polling places.

Towns are—Cootehill, Belturbet, Bailieborough, Kingscourt, Virginia, Ballyjamesduff, Arvagh, Killeshandra, Bellanagh.

CLARE COUNTY.

Clare, a maritime county in Munster province. Boundaries; N. Galway and Galway Bay; E. and S. the Shannon, which separates it from Tipperary, Limerick, and Kerry, W. the Atlantic. Length N. E. and S. W. 67½ miles, breadth N. W. and S. E. 38 miles; area 827,994 acres, of which 151,035 are under tillage, 469,446 in pasture, 7,340 plantation, 137,224 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 67,920 under water. The coast is generally rocky, and in some places bold, precipitous cliffs, it is indented with several bays, the principal of which are Ballyvaughan, Liscannon and Malbay; there are also Doonbeg, Ballord, Farrahy, Moorebay and Rossbay, and in the estuary of the Shannon Rinevella, Kilbaha, Carrigaholt, Poulnasherry and Clonderlaw Bay. Kilrush Creek and the estuary of the Fergus, which is the only large river off the coast; in the Atlantic is Mutton Island; and in the Shannon Scattery Hog Island. Immense oyster beds abound in Ballyvaughan and along the shores of Burren. The salmon fishery is also extensively carried on in Clonderlaw Bay, in the rivers Shannon and Fergus and at Dunbeg. The diversified mountains in the N. E. and in the E. and in the N. W. and W., the centre an undulating plain; the soil varying from light limestone pasture in the N. to deep, rich loam

along the Shannon in the S. The W., which is a portion of Munster, is cold and wet land, interspersed with bog. Limestone occupies all the Northern and central parts of the country, but there are valuable lead mines worked at Ballyvirgin, Rathclooney, Crow Hill and Carrahan. At Killaloe and Broadford are excellent slate quarries. The produce is almost wholly agricultural. The chief trade is corn and provisions, and some of the best sheep and cattle are reared in the excellent pasturage of this county. Freize hosiery are manufactured for home use. The imports are principally corn and timber.

The country is divided into 11 Baronies: L. Bunratty, U. Bunratty, Burren, Clonderlaw, Corcomroe, Ibrickan, Inchiquin Islands, Moyarta, L. Tulley, U. Tulley, 80 parishes and 2193 town lands, with a population of 147,-364 or 27,636 families, inhabiting 26,069 houses, also 712 uninhabited and 53 building. It includes the diocese of Kilfenora, the greater part of Killaloe and a small portion of Limerick. The principal towns are the county town and Parliamentary borough of Ennis; population 6503. The county returns 3 members to Parliament, 2 for the county at large, constituency 5432, with 20 polling places, and one for the burrough of Ennis, constituency 242.

Towns are Kilrush, Kilkee, Killaloe, Ennistymon, Miltown, Malbay, Clare, Tulla, Newmarket-on-Fergus, Scariff, Corofin, Killadysert, Sixmilebridge.

CORK COUNTY.

Cork, a maritime county in Munster province; the largest of Ireland, both in extent of surface and of arable land. Boundaries: N., Limerick; E., Tipperary and Waterford; S. the Atlantic ocean; W. Kerry. Greatest length, E. and W. 110 miles, greatest breadth N. and S. 70 miles; comprising an area of 1,849,686 acres, of which 470,926 are under tillage, 1,000,735 in pasture, 31,744 in plantations, 6000 in towns, 331,882 waste bog, mountain, etc., and 14,369 under water. The coast is indented with numerous bays, the principal of which are Bantry, Dun-

manus, Cloghnakilty, Kinsale, Cork Harbour and Youghal. Off the coast are the islands of Cape Clear (population 1052) Whiddy, and several smaller. The west part of the county is mountainous, the north and east extremely fertile. The mineral productions are chiefly copper, the mines of which at Allahies, employ from 1500 to 2000 hands: coal, limestone, fullers-earth and brick clay. Throughout the whole county there is a great diversity of soil, climate and scenery. The county is divided into East and West Ridings for the purpose of holding general sessions of the peace; the East Riding has been sub-divided into 3 districts for quarter sessions purposes, and the West Riding into 2 divisions. There are in the county, including the county of the city of Cork, 23 baronies: East Riding, Barretts, Barrymore, Condons and Clangibbon, Cork, Du Hallow, Fermoy, Imokilly, Kerrycurrihy, Kinalea, Kinnatalloon, Kinsale, Muskerry East, part of Orrery and Kilmore. West Riding: Bantry, Bear, Carberry East, E. D., Carberry East, W. D., Carberry West, E. D., Carberry West, W. D. Courcey, Ibane and Barryroe, Kinalmeaky, Muskerry East, part of, and Muskerry West. There are 251 parishes, and 5561 town lands, with a total population of 517,076 persons, or 97,903 families, inhabiting 84,789 houses, also 3094 uninhabited, and 159 building. It comprises the dioceses of Cork, Cloyne, Ross, and a small part of Ardfert. The principal towns of the East Riding are Cork city and Parliamentary borough, population 100,518; the Parliamentary boroughs of Kinsale, 7050, Youghal, 6081, and Mallow 4165. The county returns 8 members to Parliament; 2 for the county at large, constituency, 15,044, with 55 polling places, 34 being the East Riding and 21 in the West; 2 for Cork city, constituency 402, 247, 199 and 257. The other towns in East Riding are Queenstown, Fermoy, Middleton, Mitchelstown, Charleville, Passage West, Kanturk, Buttevant, Doneraile, Cloyne, Ballintemple, Whitegate, Castletownroche, Douglass, Monkstown, Carrigtushill, Glanworth, Kilworth, Blackrock Ballin, Collig. West Riding are Skibbereen, Clonakilty, Bantry, Macroom, Dunmanway, Millstreet, Castletown, Berehaven, Rosscarberry, Ballydehob, Skull.

DONEGAL COUNTY.

DONEGAL, a maritime county in Ulster province· Boundaries: N. the Atlantic Ocean; E. Lough Foyle; Londonderry and Tyrone; S. Tyrone, Fermanagh and Leintrim; W. the Atlantic Ocean. Greatest length, N. E. and S. W., 85 miles; greatest breadth, S. E, and N.W., 41 miles, comprising an area of 1,197,154 acres, of which 247,281 are under tillage, 411,966 in pasture, 9,308 in plantations, 505,719 waste, bog, mountains, etc., and 22,-860 under water. The coast is indented by numerous bays, of which the principal are Lough Swilly, Lough Foyle, Mulroy, Sheephaven, Teelin, Killybegs, Inver and Donegal. The islands are numerous; 17 are inhabited; the principal are N. Arran, containing 4,355 acres, population 1,220, Innistrahul and Tory; there are light-houses on N. Arran, Innistrahul, Tory Island, at Tannet point, W. of Lough Swilly, Rathlin, Obeirne's Island, N. W. side of the entrance to the bay of Donegal, and at St. John's Point, Killybegs. The surface is mountainous and boggy. The lakes are numerous, but small; the most remarkable is Lough Dearg, 3,214 acres, having in it St. Patrick's Purgatory, a celebrated place of pilgrimage. Rivers are numerous but small. The sub-soil ischiefly granite, mica-slate and limestone. The climate is moist; potatoes, oats and flax are the chief crops; spade husbandry is practiced along the west coast. The occupations are chiefly agricultural; the linen manufacture is now reviving, and weaving is extensively carried on, especially in the town and neighborhood of Raphoe; that of woolen stockings is increasing and much employment is afforded to the otherwise unemployed female population by the worked-muslin trade; the inhabitants near the coast are much occupied in the fisheries, and the making of kelp from seaweed, an article which is largely exported to Scotland. The Finn Valley Railway lines from Strabane to Stranorlar, from Derry to Buncrana and from Enniskillen to Bundoran, are in operation. The county is divided into six Baronies, viz: Banagh Boylagh, Inishowen E., Inishowen W., Kilmacrenan, Raphoe, Tirhugh. There are

51 parishes and 2,627 town lands, with a population of 218,334 persons, or 41,944 families, inhabiting 40,854 houses; also 1,393 uninhabited and 89 building. It contains Raphoe diocese, and parts of those of Derry and Clogher. Buncrana, Rathmelton, Donegal and Killybegs, which are seaports, carry on a considerable trade. The county returns two members to Parliament, constituency 4,612, with 27 polling places. The towns are Ballyshannon, Letterkenny, Donegal, Moville, Rathmelton, Raphoe, Ballybofey, Buncrana, Bundoran, Carndonogh, Dunfanaghy, Killybegs, Lifford, Glenties, Ardara, Pettigoe.

DOWN COUNTY.

Down, a maritime county in Ulster province. Boundaries: N. Antrim and Carrickfergus Bay; E. and W. the Irish Sea; W. Armagh. Length N. E. and S. W. 51 miles; breadth N. W. and S. E. 38 miles, comprising an area of 612,409 acres, of which 339,541 are under tillage, 187,604 in pasture, 12,027 in plantations, 70,296 waste, bog, mountain, &c., and 3,004 under water. On the coast are, Carrickfergus Bay, Strangford Lough or Lough Cone, Killough, Dundrum and Carlingford Bays; and at a short distance from it are the Copeland Islands, on the lesser of which is a lighthouse showing a fixed light; on the South Rock, off the Ardes with a light revolving every 1½ minutes; at Ardglass Harbor, and one revolving light at St. John's Point. The Harbor of Donaghadee has been improved, and has a depth of 10 feet at low spring tides. There is a fixed light on the S. E. pier visible for 12 miles, red to seaward and white towards the harbor and entrance to Belfast Bay. The surface is hilly, rising into mountains in the south; the highest, Slieve-Donard, being 2,809 above high-sea level. The river Lagan skirts the county on the N. and the Bann on the W. The subsoil is clay, slate and some limestone with granite in the S. The soil is of medium quality; the chief crops potatoes, barley, oats and flax. Linen is the staple manufacture. The county is divided into 10 baronies. Ards Lower, Ards Upper, Castlereagh Lower, Castlereagh Up-

per, Dufferin, Iveagh Lower, Iveagh Upper, Lower and Upper Part, Upper Part, Kinelearty, Lecale Lower, Lecale Upper, Lordship of Newry, Mourne, and contains 70 parishes and 1,286 town lands, having a population of 293,449 persons or 61,464 families, inhabiting 58,343 houses; also 3,405 uninhabited, and 114 building.

It is in the Dioceses of Down and Dromore, with a small portion in that of Connor. The principal towns are the County town and Parliamentary borough of Downpatrick, population of 4,155. The portion of the borrough of Belfast, in this county, contains a population of 16,155 ; the remaining population, 158,257 is in Antrim county. The part of the Parliamentary borough of Lisburn, in this county, has a population of 1,024, the remainder, 8,302 is in Antrim county. The Parliamentary borough of Newry has a total population of 14,213, of which 8,837 is in this county and the remainder in Armagh county. The county returns four members to parliament; two for the county at large, constituency, 12,705, with 26 polling places; one for Downpatrick, constituency, 281 ; one for Newry, constituency, 1,086.

Towns : Newtownards, Banbridge, Holywood, Gilford, Bangor, Dromore, Donaghadee, Comber, Portaferry, Rathfryland, Warrenpoint, Killyleagh, Kilkeel, Ballinahinch, Tullynery, Saintfield, Hillsborough, Grey Abbey, Newcastle, Castlewellan, Killough, Ballywalter, Crossgar, Waringstown, Moira, Rosstrevor, Kircubbin, Ardglass, Seapatrick, Annsborough, Carrowdore.

DUBLIN COUNTY.

Dublin, a maritime county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Meath; E. the Irish Sea; S Wicklow; W. Kildare and Meath. Length N. and S. 32 miles; breadth E. and W. 18 miles; comprising an area of 226,895 acres, of which 100,236 are under tillage, 91,503 in pasture, 4,716 in plantations, 30,440 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 998 water, and 1,820 under towns, exclusive of Dublin City. Along the east are the Bays of Dublin, Killiney, Malahide, Rogerstown, and Lough Shinny,

and the artificial harbours of Kingstown, Howth, Lambay, and Balbriggan; and close to it the Island of Lambay, and the islets of Red Island, Colt Island, St. Patrick's Island, Shinnick's Island, Ireland's Eye, and Dalkey; off the S. coast is the Kish Bank light ship, showing three fixed lights; and in Dublin harbour are fixed lights on the Poolbeg or S. Wall, Baily of Howth, Howth Harbour, Balbriggan and the North Wall, and at Kingstown a fixed light and a revolving light, the former on the West Pier, the latter on the East Pier, at the mouth of the harbour, in which is also a short additional pier and railway for the Mail Packet service. The only river of note is the Liffey. The prevailing character of the sub-soil is calp, lime-stone and granite. The surface is level, rising at its southern boundary into a range of elevated hills, the summit of the highest of which, Kippure, 2,473 feet above high sea level. The county in divided into nine Baronies, viz., Balrothery, E. Balrothery, W. Castleknock, Coolock, Dublin, Nethercross, Newcastle, Rathdown, Uppercross, and contains 76 civil parishes, and 10 parts of parishes, and 1,066 townlands, having a population of 158,936 persons, or 31,686 families, inhabiting 26,858 houses, also 1,835 uninhabited and 110 building. This is in the Archdiocese of Dublin and Glandelough. The principal towns are Kingstown, population 16,378. The county returns two members to Parliament; constituency, 5,220, with 18 polling places. The towns are Skerries, Chapelizod, Rush, Swords, Howth, Terenure, Malahide, Baldoyle, Lusk, Dundrum, Lucan, Stillorgan.

See Dublin, under Boroughs and Cities.

FERMANAGH COUNTY.

Fermanagh, an inland county in Ulster province. Boundaries: N. Donegal and Tyrone; E. Tyrone and Monaghan; S. Cavan; W. Cavan and Leitrim. Length N W. and S. E. 45 miles; breadth N. E. and S. W. 29 miles, comprising an area of 457,195 acres, of which 106,530 are under tillage, 243,251 in pasture, 5,909 in plantations,

55,248 waste, bog, mountain, etc., 210 in towns, and 46,431 under water. The surface generally exhibits a succession of abrupt eminences of slight elevation ; it is mountainous along the western boundary, from Ballyconnell to the sea, and also between Lisnaskea, Fivemiletown and Rosslea. Lough Erne, its most attractive feature, extends from one extremity to the other for 45 miles in a N. W. direction ; it bisects the county, and is divided into upper and lower ; the upper extends from Wattlebridge to Enniskillen ; the lower from Enniskillen to Rosscor, where its waters are contracted and forms the river Erne, which extends to the county Donegal and falls into the sea at Ballyshannon. It is navigable during the winter season through its whole extent to the fall at Beleek, within three miles of Ballyshannon ; a steamer plies occasionally during the summer months between Enniskillen and Beleek, on the lower lake ; another steamer has been provided for the upper lakes. The other lakes next in size are Loughs Melvin and Macnean. The soil is variable, heavy, and retentive of moisture, light and friable and moorish. Coal and iron ore are found in small quantities, and there is sand and limestone in abundance ; the climate mild and moist. The trade in butter is considerable, and the linen manufacture of a coarse description, chiefly for domestic use, is carried on to a small extent.

The county is divided into 8 baronies, viz : Clanawly, Clankelly, Coole, Knockninny, Lurg, Magheraboy, Magherastephena, Tyrkennedy, and contains 23 parishes, and 2,183 town lands, having a population of 92,794 persons, or 18,957 families, inhabiting 17,710 houses, also 577 uninhabited, and 34 building.

It is chiefly in Clogher diocese, with a small portion in that of Kilmore. The county town is Enniskillen, population of 5,906. The county returns 3 members to Parliament—2 for the county, constituency, 4,859 with 13 polling places ; and 1 for Enniskillen borough, constituency 403.

GALWAY COUNTY.

GALWAY, a maritime county in Connaught province, Boundaries, N. Mayo and Roscommon; E. Roscommon, Kings, and Tipperary; S. Clare and Galway bay; W. the Atlantic Ocean. Length, E. and W. 84 miles; breadth, N. and S., 62 miles; comprising an area of 1,566,352 acres, of which 230,902 are under tillage, 794,-710 in pasture, 23,910 in plantations, 426,600 waste bog, mountain, etc., 1,801 in towns, and 90,230 under water. The coast is indented with numerous bays. The principal islands are Inismore, population 2,592; Inishmaan, 473; Inishere 456; Garomna and Inishark. On Inishere there is a light-house, and also one on Eevagh Island to the N. W. of Inishmore; there are light-houses with fixed lights at Sline Head in Connemara, and on Mutton Island in Galway Harbour. Lough Corrib divides the county into the E. and W. districts, and is navigable from the sea to Cong, in Mayo, and small steamers ply on its entire length. Lough Dearg is an expansion of the Shannon, which forms part of the eastern boundary of the county. The W. district, named also Iarconnaught, Connemara, and Joyce's country, is mountainous and rugged, poorly inhabited, parts almost desolate, but capable of high degrees of cultivation at moderate expense, and from its wild and beautiful scenery is crowded every summer with tourists; the E., level and mostly arable with much bog. Iron and lead ore has been found and the former worked when timber for smelting it was abundant. Limestone and marble are the chief minerals. In Connemara there is abundance of most beautiful green variegated marble, called serpentine; the black near Oughterard is very fine and has been exported to the London and other markets. The occupations are chiefly agricultural. Coarse linens and woolen stockings are manufactured, and kelp along the shores. At Oughterard a linen weaving factory has been established, and on the coast fishing affords occupation to many of the inhabitants. A company for deep sea fishing and trawling has been estabtablished in Galway. A branch of the Grand Canal ex-

tends from Shannon harbor to Ballinasloe. The county is divided into 18 baronies, viz: Aran, Athenry, Ballymoe, Ballinahinch, Clare, Clonmacnowen, Dunkillin, Dunmore, Galway, (Co. of Town) Kilconnell, Killian, Kiltartan, Leitrim, Longford, Loughrea, Moycullen, Ross, Tiaquin, and 110 parishes, 10 parts of parishes and 4,237 town lands, having a population of 248,458 or 48,057 families, inhabiting 45,564 houses; also 970 uninhabited, and 95 building. The county comprehends the whole of Kilmacduagh diocese, and parts of the Tuam, Clonfert, Elphin, and Killaloe. It returns 4 members to Parliament; 2 for the county at large, constituency, 5,087, with 37 polling places. The towns are Tuam, Ballinasloe, part of, Loughrea, Gort, Clifden, Portumna, Athenry, Headford, Dunmore, Oughterard, Eyrecourt, Kinvara, Menlough.

KERRY COUNTY.

KERRY, a maritime county in Munster province. Boundaries: N. the estuary of the Shannon; E. Limerick and Cork; S. Cork and Kenmare estuary; W. the Atlantic ocean. Length, N. and S. 60 miles; breadth E. and W. 58 miles, comprising an area of 1,185,918, acres, of which 152,689 are under tillage, 638,149 in pasture, 15,101 in plantations, 348,097 waste, bog, mountain, etc., 807 in towns, and 31,882 under water. The principal bays along the coast are Tralee, Brandon, Smerwick, Dingle, Ballinskellig, and Kenmare estuary. The principal islands are Valentia, population 2920. The Blasquets and the Skellig rocks, on one of which there is a lighthouse showing two fixed lights. The face of the country is formed of mountain ranges, intersected by deep valleys with some level ground. The summit of Carran Tual, the highest mountain in Ireland, is 3,410 feet above high sea level. The lakes of Killarney are small but peculiarly picturesque and are now accessible by the Killarney Junction Railway, from Mallow, on the Grand Southern and Western line. The subsoil is slate and red sand-stone with limestone in the low districts. Iron ore abounds, copper

and lead ores are found in many places, and mines are worked near Kenmare and Tralee. The coal veins of Duhallow run into the northeastern part of the county. Slate of a superior kind and flagstone are raised in great quantities at Valentia. The occupations are dairy farming, tillage and fishing. The chief crops, potatoes, oats and turnips. The county is divided into eight baronies, viz: Clanmaurice, Corkaguiny, DunKerrow, N. DunKerrow, S. Glenarought, Iraghticonnor, Iveragh, Magunihy, Trughanacmy, and contains 87 parishes, and 2,716 town lands, having a population of 196,586 persons, or 34,747 families, inhabiting 32,240 houses, also 463 uninhabited, and 68 building. The principal towns are the Parliamentary borough of Tralee, population of 9,506. The county is the diocese of Ardfert and Aghadoe; it returns 3 members to Parliament, 2 for the county, constituency 5,409 with 29 polling places, and 1 for Tralee borough, constituency 322. The towns, Killarney, Listowel, Dingle, Cahirciveen, Castle-Island, Kenmare, Killorglin, Ballylongford, Torbert, Castlegregory, Milltown.

KILDARE COUNTY.

KILDARE, an inland county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Meath; E. Dublin and Wicklow; S. Carlow; W. Queens, Kings and Westmeath. Length N. and S. 40 miles; breadth E. and W. 27; comprising an area of 418,497 acres, of which 138,146 are under tillage, 218,035 in pasture, 7,585 in plantations, 53,741 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 1,017 under water. The subsoil is limestone and clay-slate; the surface level, with a few low hills interspersed. The rivers, Liffey and Barrow, pass through the county; the Boyne rises in its N. part. The Grand and Royal canals traverse it, as also the Great Southern and Western railway, passing through or near the towns of Naas, Newbridge, Kildare, Monasteraven, and Athy, and the Midland Great Western railway passing near the towns of Leixlip, Maynooth, Kilcock, and Enfield. It contains 50,000 acres of bog; the Common, called the Curragh, covers 5,000 acres. Large quan-

tities of turf are sent to Dublin by the canals. The occupations are chiefly agricultural, but there are some woolen, cotton, and paper factories; adjoining the town of Maynooth is the Roman Catholic College of St. Patrick. The county is divided into 14 baronies, viz.: Carbury, Clane, Connell, Ikeathy and Oughterany, Kilcullen, Kilkea and Moone, Naas N., Naas S., Narragh and Reban E., Narragh and Reban W., Offaly E., Offaly W., Salt N., Salt S., and contains 116 parishes, and 1,244 town lands, having a population of 83,614, or 15,032 families, inhabiting 14,166 houses; also 353 uninhabited, and 26 building. The county returns two members to Parliament; constituency 2,907, with 15 polling places. It is in the Home circuit. The towns are Athy, Naas, Newbridge, Maynooth, Celbridge, Kildare, Monastereven, Kilcullen, Leixlip, Kilcock, Castledermot, Ballymore, Eustace, Rathangan.

KILKENNY COUNTY.

KILKENNY, an inland county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Queen's County; E. Carlow and Wexford; S. Waterford; W. Tipperary. Length N. and S., 46 miles; breadth E. and W. 24 miles; comprising an area of 509,732 acres, of which 118,373 are under tillage, 286,948 in pasture, 11,281 in plantations, 90,074 waste bog, mountain, etc., and 3,056 under water. The surface is generally level, with some mountains; the subsoil chiefly limestone, with clay-slate and sandstone in the higher parts. A sulphurous coal, used for smelting and smiths' works and for culinary and domestic purposes, is raised at Castlecomer. The soil is light, loamy and very fertile in the valleys. The Nora passes through the middle of the county. The Barrow borders it E. and the Suir S. Both of these border rivers are navigable to a considerable distance, as is the Nora, for small barges. The occupations are agricultural; the manufactures flour, beer, whisky, and leather. The county is divided into 10 baronies: Callan, Crannagh, Fassadinin, Galmoy, Gowran, Ida, Iverk, Kells, Knocktopher, Shillelogher,

and contains 140 parishes and 1,605 town lands, having a population of 109,379, or 21,968 families, inhabiting 21,079 houses, also 475 uninhabited, and 27 building. Its principal town is Kilkenny City; the county town population 12,710. The county is in Ossory diocese, except a small portion in Leighlin. It returns 3 members to Parliament, 2 for the county; constituency, 4,978 with 16 polling places, and 1 for Kilkenny City; constituency 696. It is in the Leinster circuit. The towns are Callan, Castlecomer, Graiguenamanagh, Thomastown, Arlingford, Ballyragget, Freshford, Gowran, Innistiog, Mooncoin, Mullinavat, Johnstown.

KINGS COUNTY.

KINGS COUNTY, an inland county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Westmeath; E. Meath and Kildare; S. Queens and Tipperary; W. Tipperary, Galway and Roscommon. Length E. and W. 45 miles, breadth N. and S. 39 miles; comprising an area of 493,985 acres, of which 130,583 are under tillage, 222,680 in pasture, 8,129 in plantation, 130,860 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 1,733 under water. The southern part is hilly, comprising a small portion of the Slieve Bloom Mountains, the remainder is comparatively flat; Croghan Hill in the N. E. rises to 769 feet; the bog of Allen covers a large portion of the centre, and extends from east to west the whole length of the county. The Shannon skirts it on the west, the little Brosna on the south, and the river Brosna passes through the north. The Grand Canal traverses the county from Edenderry in the extreme east to Shannon harbor in the west. The Athlone extension of the Great Southern and Western Railway traverses it from S. E. to N. W., passing through Portarlington, Tullamore and Clare; and in the south there is a branch of the same railway from Roscrea to Parsonstown. The soil is of average quality. The greater part a light loam of medium depth resting on limestone gravel. The occupations are agricultural; manufactures being only for home consumption. The county is divided into 12 Baron-

ies viz: Ballyboy, Ballybritt, Ballycowan, Clonlisk, Coolestown, Eglish, Garrycastle, Geashill, Kilcoursey, Phillipstown L., Phillipstown U., Warrenstown; and contains 51 Parishes with 1,181 town lands, having a population of 75,900 persons, or 15,595 families, inhabiting 14,799 houses; also 429 uninhabited, and 25 building. It is in the dioceses of Kildare and Meath, Killaloe, with portions in Ossory and Clonfert. Tullymore, the county town, has a population of 5,179. The county returns two members to Parliament; constituency, 3,368, with 17 polling places. It is in the home circuit. The towns are: Parsonstown, Edenderry, Banagher, part of Portarlington, Clara, Phillipstown, Frankford and Shinrone.

LEITRIM COUNTY.

Leitrim, a maritime county in Connaught province. Boundaries: N. Donegal Bay, Donegal and Fermanagh; E. Fermanaugh and Cavan; S. Longford; W Roscommon and Sligo. Length N. and S. 51 miles; breadth E. and W. 21 miles; comprising an area of 392,363 acres, of which 86,738 are under tillage, 212,032 in pasture, 3265 in plantations, 66,580 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 23,748 under water. The Shannon, which flows through Lough Allen in this county, forms its western boundary; the other large lakes are Loughs Macnean, Melvin, Gill, Rinn, Beelhovel, Scurr, St. John's and Garadice. The soil is cold, stiff and retentive, but fertile in the valleys, where the subsoil is limestone. The county is intersected by a canal uniting the Shannon at Carrick-on-Shannon, with Lough Erne at Ballyconnell. Iron and lead ores are abundant; also coal in Slieve Aderien mountain, and on the south side of Lough Allen, where it is raised to some extent. Linens and coarse woolen for domestic use are manufactured. The extension of the Midland Great Western Railway from Longford to Sligo is open through the southern part of the county, by Newtownforbes, Rooskey, Dromod, Drumsna and Carrick-on-Shannon; and the railway from Enniskillen to

Bundoran and Sligo is open to Bundoran. The county is divided into 5 baronies, viz: Carrigallen, Drumahaire, Leitrim, Mohill, Rosclogher, and contains 17 parishes, with 1489 town lands, having a population of 95,562 persons, or 17,835 families, inhabiting 17,373 houses, also 276 uninhabited, and 52 building. It is in Kilmore and Ardagh dioceses, and in the Connaught circuit. The largest town is the county town of Carrick-on-Shannon, with a population of 1442. The county returns 2 members to Parliament; constituency 2538, with 14 polling places. The towns are Mohill, Manorhamilton, Ballinamore.

LIMERICK COUNTY.

Limerick, a maritime county in Munster province. Boundaries: N. the estuary of the Shannon, Clare and Tipperary; E. Tipperary; S. Cork; W. Kerry. Length N. and S. 35 miles; breadth E. and W. 54 miles; comprising an area of 680,842 acres, of which 189,176 are under tillage, 404,467 in pasture, 8,734 in plantations, 59,991 waste bog, mountain, &c., and 18,474 under water. The surface is an undulating plain, watered by the Maigue, Deel and Mulcair, and rising into mountains in the N. E. S. and S. W. The subsoil is limestone, trap and sandstone. The soil is peculiarly fertile, particularly in the morasses along the Shannon and in the Golden Vale, which extends from the borders of Tipperary westward through the centre of the county. The occupations are chiefly agricultural; pasturage and dairy farming are most cultivated; tillage less attended to. Large quantities of produce are exported; the manufactures are coarse woolens, paper, flour, meal. The county is divided into 14 Baronies, viz.: Clanwilliam, Connello, L., Connello U. Coonagh, Coshlea, Coshma, Glenquin, Henry, Kilmallock, Limerick (North Liberties), Owneybeg, Pubblebrien, Shanid, Small county, and contains 131 Parishes, with 2067 town lands, having a population of 191,936 persons, or 36,-895 families, inhabiting 31,863 houses; also 829 uninhabited, and 38 building. The county is in Limerick and Emly

dioceses, with small portions in Cashel and Killaloe. The principal towns are the city and Parliamentary borough of Limerick, population 49,980. The county returns 4 members to Parliament, 2 for the county at large; constituency 6,309, with 23 polling places, and 2 for Limerick city, constituency 1,947. It is in the Munster circuit. Towns: Rathkeale, Newcastle, Bruff, Askeaton, Kilfinane, Kilmallock, Abbeyfeale, Cappamore, Croom, Glin, Ballingarry, Adare, Hospital, Drumcolloher, Ballylanders, Bruree.

LONDONDERRY COUNTY.

Londonderry, a maritime county in Ulster province. Boundaries: N. Lough Foyle and the Atlantic Ocean; E. Antrim and Lough Neagh; S. Tyrone; W. Donegal. Length N. and S. 40 miles; breadth E. and W. 34 miles; comprising an area of 522,315 acres, of which 196,887 are under tillage, 228,186 in pasture, 5,483 in plantations, 82,279 waste, bog, mountain, &c., and 9,480 under water. The surface is hilly and rugged, with fertile tracts along the rivers. The rivers are the Bann (part of) on its E., the Foyle (part of) on its W. boundary, and the Faughan, Roe, and Moyola, with their numerous feeders, in the intermediate tracts. The subsoil is mica-slate, sandstone, and tabular trap; clay-slate, basalt and limestone are found in most districts. The chief crops are oats, barley, potatoes and flax, with some wheat. The staple manufacture is linen. The fourth part of the county is held by lease under the Irish Society and six London companies, to whom the land was granted by James the II out of the forfeited estates of the Northern chiefs; the names of the companies are:

IRISH SOCIETY.	ACREAGE.	VALUATION.
Irish Society	6,075	£11,335
Drapers' Company	27,025	14,859
Fishmongers' Company	20,059	9,159
Grocers' Company	11,638	6,457
Ironmongers' Company	12,714	8,032
Salters' Company	19,445	17,263
Skinners' Company	34,772	9,511
Total	132,178	£76,616

The county is divided into 6 baronies, viz: Coleraine, Keenaght, Longhinsholin, Northeast Liberties of Coleraine, Northwest Liberties of Londonderry, Tyrkeeran, and containing 43 parishes and 1,202 town lands, having a population of 173,906 persons, or 34,624 families, inhabiting 32,590 houses; also 940 uninhabited, and 76 building.

The county is chiefly in Derry diocese, with portions in Armagh and Connor. The principal towns are Londonderry city and Parliamentary borough; population, 25,242; and the Parliamentary borough of Coleraine, 6,588. The county returns 4 members to Parliament, 2 for the county at large; constituency, 5,615, with 18 polling places; and one each for Londonderry city and Coleraine borough; constituencies, 1,759 and 482. It is in the N. W. circuit. The towns are Limavady, Magherafelt, Maghera, Kilrea, Garvagh, Dungiven, Moneymore, Castledawson, Tobermore, Portstewart, Draperstown.

LONGFORD COUNTY.

Longford, an inland county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Leitrim and Cavan; E. and W. Westmeath; W. Roscommon. Length W. and S. 29 miles; breadth E. and W. 22 miles; comprising an area of 269,409 acres, of which 79,709 are under tillage, 124,406 in pasture, 3,317 in plantations, 48,302 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 13,675 under water. The surface is level, with some low hills. The subsoil is limestone and clay-slate; the soil fertile and well suited to pasturage, with much bog. The Inny, a tributary to the Shannon, takes its rise in Lough Kinale, county Westmeath, and flows into the Shannon at Lough Ree. The Royal canal passes through the county to the town of Longford, and terminates in the Shannon at Clondra. Two branches of the Midland Great Western Railway pass through the county from Mullingar to Longford and Cavan. The occupations are tillage and grazing, chiefly the latter; linens and coarse woolens are manufactured. The county is divided into 6 baronies, viz: Ardagh, Granard, Longford, Moydow, Rath-

cline, Shrule, containing 26 parishes, and 891 town lands, having a populat on of 64,501 persons, or 12,483 families, inhabiting 12,002 houses; also 196 uninhabited, and 28 building. It is in Ardagh diocese with a small portion in Meath. The principal towns are Longford, the county town, population 4,375. The county returns 2 members to Parliament, constituency 2,731, with 12 polling places. It is in the N. W. circuit. The towns are Granard, Edgeworthstown, Ballymahon.

LOUTH COUNTY.

Louth, a maritime county in Leinster province, and the smallest in Ireland. Boundaries, N. Armagh and Down; E. the Irish Sea; S. Meath; W. Meath and Monaghan. Length N. and S. 25 miles, breadth E. and W. 15 miles, comprising an area of 202,123 acres, of which 106,071 are under tillage, 69,322 pasture, 4,882 in plantations, 21,595 waste, bog, etc., and 653 under water. It is intersected by 588 miles of roads kept in repair by the grand jury presentments. On its N. coast Carlingford Bay separates it from Down, on its S. the estuary of the Boyne from Meath; between both is the bay and harbor of Dundalk. The river Boyne, here navigable, skirts the county on the S. The surface is level or undulating, except on the N., where it is rugged and mountainous; the subsoil is clay-slate and graywacke, and in a few districts the mountain limestone carboniferous slate, old red sand stone in one place and granite. The soil is fertile except in the elevated tracts; tillage is much practiced; wheat, barley, oats and green crops are raised. The farms are well fenced and drained. Linen is manufactured. The county is divided into 6 baronies, viz: Ardee, Drogheda, Dundalk L., Dundalk U., Ferrard, Louth, and contains 64 parishes and 674 town lands having a population of 84,021 persons, or 17,680 families, inhabiting 16,885 houses, also 718 uninhabited, and 35 building. The county is in Armagh archdiocese, with a small portion in that of Meath. The principal towns are the town and Parliamentary borough of Dundalk; popula-

tion 11,377; and the Parliamentary borough of Drogheda, 15,246.

The county returns 4 members to Parliament, 2 for the county at large, constituency 2,240, with 10 polling places: 1 for Dundalk, constituency 541, and 1 for Drogheda, constituency 779. It is in the N. E. circuit. Towns are Ardee, Carlingford, Clogher, Collon, Castlebellingham, Dunleer.

MAYO COUNTY.

Mayo, a maritime county in Connaught province; Boundaries: N. the Atlantic ocean; E. Sligo and Roscommon; S. Galway; W. the Atlantic. Length 58 miles; breadth E. and W. 72 miles; comprising an area of 1,367,618 acres; of which 204,425 are under tillage, 520,930 in pasture, 8,869 in plantations, 576,418 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 56,976 under water. The coast is indented with the bays of Killala, Broadhaven, Blacksod, the two last being separated from each other by the narrow isthmus of Belmullet, the entrance into the peninsula of the Mullet, Tulloghane bay, Clew bay, studded with numerous islets and the Killeries. Near the coast are the islands of Achill, 35,283 acres; Clare, 3,959 acres; Inishturk, 1,451 acres; Innisboffin, 2,315 acres, and numerous smaller. The surface is of every character; much mountain and waste, and much level and fertile land. The summits of Muilrea, Nephin and Croagh Patrick are 2,680, 2,530 and 2,370 feet above high sea level. On the summit of the last is a chapel dedicated to St. Patrick. The sub-soil in the level parts is limestone, in the other parts red sandstone, mica-slate, granite and quartz; iron ore abounds, but remains unwrought for want of fuel. There are several valuable slate quarries. Lakes Conn, Carragh, Cullen, Castlebar, Carramore, Fyogh, and some smaller are within the county. Those of Mask and Corrib border it on the S. The river Moy forms part of its E. boundary. The occupations are agriculture and fishing. Pasturage is more attended to than tillage. The linen manufacture flourished here, but has declined.

The salmon fishery on the Moy, and the other rivers of the county, is very considerable. The county is divided into nine baronies, viz: Burrishoole, Carra, Clanmorris, Costello, Erris, Gallen, Kilmaine, Murrisk, Tirawley, and contains 73 parishes, having a population of 264,030, or 45,360 families, inhabiting 43,999 houses, also 807 uninhabited, and 70 building. It is in the dioceses of Tuam, Killala and Achonry. The county returns two members to Parliament; constituency 3,433, with 25 polling places. It is in the Connaught circuit. The towns are Ballina, part in Co. Sligo, Westport, Castlebar, Ballirobe, Ballaghadereen, Swineford, Claremorris, Kiltamagh, Crossmolina, Belmullet, Newport, Charlestown, Foxford, Killala, Louisburg, Ballyhaunis.

MEATH COUNTY.

Meath, a maritime county in Leinster province.—Boundaries: N. Cavan, Monaghan, and Louth; E. the Irish Sea and Dublin; S. Dublin, Kildare, and King's county; W. Westmeath. Length N. and S. 40 miles; breadth E. and W. 47 miles; comprising an area of 579-861 acres, of which 167,604 are under tillage, 369,061 in pasture, 10,467 in plantations, 29,485 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 3,244 under water. The county forms the E. part of the Great Limestone plain that extends over all the central portion of Ireland. It has only about 10 miles of coast, and no harbor of importance. The surface is level or undulating, rising toward the W. and N. W. The soil a rich loam, very fertile. The rivers are the Boyne and the Blackwater. The Royal Canal passes through the county. The occupations are almost exclusively agricultural, chiefly grazing. Coarse linens are manufactured, and there are 3 woolen factories. The county is divided into 18 baronies, viz.: Deece L., Deece U., Duleek L., Duleek U., Dunboyne, Fore, Kells L., Kells U., Lune, Morgallion, Moyfenrath L., Moyfenrath U., Navan L., Navan U., Ratoath, Skreen, Slane L., Slane U., and contains 146 parishes, and 1,626 town lands, having a population of 95,558 persons, or 19,516 families, inhabit-

ing 18,814 houses; also 458 uninhabited, and 43 building. The county is in Meath diocese, with portions in Armagh and Kilmore. The county returns two members to Parliament, constituency of 4,254, with 19 polling places. It is in the Home circuit. The towns are Navan, Kells, Trim, Old Castle, Athboy, Duleek.

MONAGHAN COUNTY.

Monaghan, an inland county in Ulster province. Boundaries: N. Tyrone; E. Armagh and Louth; S. Meath and Cavan; W. Fermanagh. Length W. and S. 37 miles; breadth E. and W. 28 miles; comprising an area of 319,741 acres, of which 151,477 are under tillage, 132,178 in pasture, 4,617 in plantations, 25,955 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 6,167 under water. The general surface is hilly and mountainous in the N. W., and to the E. joining Armagh; the highest point of the Slievebeagh range is 1,254 feet above high sea level. The soil is of every variety; that in the more level portion which forms the N. part of the great central limestone plain of Ireland, is very fertile, but the more hilly parts are a stiff clay, good for flax and corn, though very difficult to work. The lakes and rivers are numerous, but small; the N. Blackwater, which falls into Lough Neagh, forms a part of the E. boundary. The Ulster canal passes through the county. The occupations are mostly agricultural; spade husbandry is much practiced; the main crops are oats, barley, potatoes and flax; which latter, from its improved culture, is vastly increasing both in quantity and in value; the culture of wheat and of green crops is increasing; the linen manufacture is reviving. The county is divided into five baronies, viz: Cremorne, Dartree, Farney, Monaghan, Trough, and containing 23 parishes and 1,850 town lands, having a population of 114,969 persons, or 23,168 families, inhabiting 22,420 houses; also 598 uninhabited, and 42 building. It is wholly in the diocese of Clogher. The county returns two members to Parliament, constituency 5,634, with 12 polling places, and is in the N. E. circuit. The towns are Monaghan, Clones, Carrickmacross, Castleblayney, Ballybay.

QUEEN'S COUNTY.

QUEEN'S COUNTY, an inland county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. King's; E. Kildare and Carlow; S. Kilkenny; W. Tipperary and King's. Length N. and S. 33 miles; breadth E. and W. 37 miles; comprising an area of 424,854 acres, of which 151,994 are under tillage, 211,159 in pasture, 9,141 in plantations, 52,164 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 396 under water. The surface is generally flat, rising in the north-west into the Slieve-Bloom Mountains, whose summit, Arderin, is 1,734 feet above the sea. The sub-soil is for the most part limestone; in the south is a large and rich field of anthracite coal, extensively worked. The soil is generally fertile with large tracts of bog. The Barrow, has its source in the Slieve-Bloom Mountains, the Nore runs through the county; the small lake Annagh is on the north boundary. A branch of the Grand Canal, passing by Portarlington, terminates at Mountmellick; and a second branch passing through a portion of the county, connects the Grand Canal with the Barrow navigation at Athy. The Great Southern and Western Railway crosses the county from N. E. to S. W., having stations at Portarlington, with a branch line to Athlone, Maryborough, Mountrath and Ballybrophy, with a branch to Parsonstown. The occupations are agricultural; tillage is much practised; green crops and cultivated dairies numerous. The county is divided into 11 baronies, viz: Ballyadams, Clandonagh, Clarmallagh, Cullenagh, Maryborough E., Maryborough W., Portnahinch, Slievemargy, Stradbally, Tinnahinch and Upperwoods, and contains 53 parishes, and 1,156 town lands, having a population of 79,771 persons, or 16,198 families, inhabiting 15,519 houses, also 279 uninhabited and 46 building. The baronies of Clandonagh, Clarmallagh and Upperwoods, formerly constituted the barony of upper Ossory. The county is in the dioceses of Leighlin and Ossory, with portions in those of Kildare, Killaloe and Dublin. The county returns 3 members to Parliament, 2 for the county; constituency 3,398, with 18 polling places, and 1 for the borough of

Portarlington; constituency 141. It is in the Home Circuit. The towns are Mountmellick, Maryborough, Mountrath, Portarlington part in King's County, Abbeyleix, Stradbally, Rathdowney, Durrow, Ballynakill, Borris-in-Ossory.

ROSCOMMON COUNTY.

Roscommon, an inland county in Connaught province. Boundaries: N. Sligo and Leitrim; E. and S. Leitrim, Longford, Westmeath, Kings and Galway; W. Galway and Mayo; length 60 miles, breadth 40 miles; comprising an area of 607,691 acres, of which 136,109 are under tillage, 333,291 in pasture, 7,677 in plantations, 101,249 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 29,370 under water. The surface is undulating or flat except towards the N., where the Curlew mountains lie near Sligo, and the Branlieve near Leitrim. The Shannon, with the Loughs, Boffin, Bodarigg and Ree, form part of the E., and the Suck the W. boundary. Lough Key is in the N. and Lough Gara in the W. of the county. The soil in the level parts is very fertile; the subsoil is limestone; coal and iron have been wrought, but never to advantage; bogs are numerous. The occupations are agricultural; grazing is chiefly attended to. The linen manufacture is declining. The county is divided into 9 baronies, viz: Athlone, Ballintober, N. Ballintober, S. Ballymoe, Boyle, Castlereagh, Frenchpark, Moycarn, Roscommon, and containing 53 parishes, 7 parts of parishes, and 1,995 town lands, having a population of 140,670 persons, or 26,539 families, inhabiting 25,782 houses; also 558 uninhabited, and 48 building. It is in Elphin diocese, with small portions in those of Tuam, Clonfert and Ardagh. The county town is Roscommon, which has only a population of 2,375. The part of the Parliamentary borough of Athlone, in this county, has a population of 3,428, and the remainder, 3,137, is in Westmeath; a small portion of the town of Ballinasloe, 893 persons is in this county; The remaining population, 4,159, is in Galway county; 122 persons in the town of Carrick-on-Shannon is in this

county and the remainder, 1,320, are in Leitrim county. The county returns 2 members to Parliament, constituency 3,699 with 22 polling places. It is in the Connaught circuit. The towns are Boyle, Castlerea, Elphin, Strokestown.

SLIGO COUNTY.

Sligo, a maritime county in Connaught province. Boundaries: N. Atlantic ocean; E. Leitrim; S. Roscommon and Mayo; W. Mayo. Length N. and S. 38 miles; breadth E. and W. 41 miles; comprising an area of 461,796 acres, of which 97,558 are under tillage, 222,199 in pasture, 6,272 in plantations, 123,027 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 12,740 under water. The coast is indented by Sligo and Killala bays. Near it are the islets of Inismurry, Oyster and Coney. The surface has much mountain and much level ground. The soil in many parts is a light sandy loam, in others it is deep and rich; many patches of bog are interspersed. The sub-soil in the level county is limestone. The Moy forms part of the west boundary of the county. The Loughs are Gill, Arrow, Gara, Talt, Easky, and several smaller. The occupations are agricultural; coarse woolens and linens are manufactured. The county is divided into six baronies, viz.: Carbury, Coolavin, Corran, Leyny, Tireragh, Tirerrill, and contains thirty-seven parishes and four parts of parishes, 1,292 town lands, having a population of 115,493 persons, or 21,667 families, inhabiting 20,979 houses; also 537 uninhabited, and 39 building. It is in the dioceses of Achonry and Elphin, with portions in Killala and Ardagh. The county town of Sligo has 10,670 inhabitants, and the portion of the town of Ballina in this county has 1,536 inhabitants, the remaining persons, 4,301, being in the county of Mayo. The county returns two members to Parliament; constituency 3,473, with 17 polling places. It is in the Connaught circuit. The towns are Ballymote and Tobercurry.

TIPPERARY COUNTY.

Tipperary, an inland county in Munster province. Boundaries: N. Galway and Kings; E. Kings, Queens and Kilkenny; S. Waterford; N. Cork, Limerick, Clare and Galway. Length N. and S. 70 miles; breadth, E. and W. 40 miles, comprising an area of 1,061,731, of which 292,084 are under tillage, 583,774 in pasture, 25,895 in plantations, 146,377 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 13,523 under water. The surface rises into the the mountains of Knockmeledown, the Galtees and Slievenamon in the S., the group of which Keeperhill is the principal in the W., and into the Slievardagh hills E. The soil of the level country is a rich calcareous loam of extraordinary fertility, particularly in the tract called the Golden Vein, extending from Limerick to the confines of Kilkenny county, and in the centre of which is Tipperary town, and in another similar tract of level ground in the Ormond baronies. The Suir and Nore rise in the Devil's Bit Mountain, near Templemore, the former for the greater part of its course running through the county; the Shannon forms part of its western boundary. The sub-soil is clay-slate in mountain districts, and limestone in the more level tracts, which form part of the great central plain of Ireland, and include some branches of the bog of Allen. The mineral productions are coal, copper and lead. Zinc in large quantities has lately been discovered at Silvermines; also excellent fire-clay; slates of a good quality are extensively raised near Killaloe, copper at Hollyford, and lead at Shallee, are found most abundantly; the lead is rich in silver. The occupations are almost wholly agricultural. The produce is principally corn; wheat is grown in large quantities and of a superior quality; dairies are numerous, affording an export of large quantities of butter. Flour and meal are also largely manufactured and exported. The woolen trade which flourished in the southern part, is nearly extinct. The county is divided into two Ridings, N. and S., each consisting of six baronies, viz: North Riding, Eliogarty, Ikerrin, Kilnamanagh, U., Ormond, L.,

Ormond, U. Owney and Arra. South Riding: Clanwilliam, Iffa and Offa E.; Iffa and Offa W.; Kilnamagh, Middlethird, Slievardagh, and contains 193 parishes, and 3,253 town lands, having a population of 216,715 persons, or 42,060 families, inhabiting 38,554 houses; also 1,265 uninhabited, and 108 building. It is in the dioceses of Cashel, Emly, Killaloe and Lismore. The county returns 3 members to Parliament—2 for the county at large; constituency 8,740, with 27 polling places, and one for the borough of Clonmel; constituency 442. It is in the Leinster circuit. The towns are Clonmel 874, being in Co. Waterford, Carrick-on-Suir 1,482, being in Co. Waterford; Nenagh, Tipperary, Thurles, Cashel, Templemore, Roscrea, Caher, Fethard, Newport, Killenaule, Borrisokane, Mullinahone, Borrisoleigh, Cloughjordan, Cappagh, Ballyporeen.

TYRONE COUNTY.

Tyrone, an inland county in Ulster province. Boundaries: N. Londonderry; E. Lough Neagh and Armagh; S. Monaghan and Fermanagh; W. Fermanagh and Donegal. Length N. and S. 46 miles; breadth E. and W. 60 miles; comprising an area of 806,658 acres, of which 275,423 are under tillage, 264,271 in pasture, 9,195 in plantations, 226,366 waste bog, mountain, etc., and 31,796 under water. The surface hilly, rising into mountains in the N. and S., and declining to a level towards Lough Neagh; the soil in the lower districts is fertile and watered by numerous branches of the Foyle and Blackwater rivers. Coal fit for domestic purposes is raised near Dungannon and Coal Island, a thriving and populous village; and indications of lead, coal, copper and iron are frequent in the hilly districts. Tillage is practiced on improved principles in the fertile parts. Young cattle are reared in the hilly and mountain districts. The manufactures are linens, coarse woolens, whiskey, beer, flour, meal, chemicals, soap, candles, and coarse earthenware. The county is divided into 8 baronies, viz: Clogher, Dungannon L., Dungannon Middle, Dungannon W., Omagh E., Omagh

W., Strabane L., Strabane U., and contains 46 parishes and 2,164 town lands, having a population of 215,765 persons, or 42,747 families, inhabiting 41,522 houses; also 1,340 uninhabited, and 81 building. It is in Armagh and Derry dioceses, with a small portion in that of Clogher. The county returns three members to Parliament—two for the county at large; constituency 8,942, with 22 polling places, and one for Dungannon borough; constituency 256. The county is in the N. W. circuit.

The towns are Strabane, Dungannon, Omagh, Cookstown, Aughnacloy, Fintona, Newtownstewart, Stewartstown, Quin, Castlederg, Dromore, Fivemiletown, Coal Island, Moy, Caledon, Ballygawley, Pomeroy.

WATERFORD COUNTY.

Waterford, a maritime county in Munster province. Boundaries: N. Tipperary and Kilkenny; E. Wexford; S. Atlantic Ocean; W. Cork. Length N. and S. 28 miles; breadth E. and W. 52 miles, comprising an area of 461,522 acres, of which 106,754 are under tillage, 229,464 in pasture, 19,899 in plantations, 99,520 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 5,779 under water. The surface is mountainous, the principal ranges being Knockmeledon, Cummeragh, Monevolagh and Drum; towards the E. it is low and marshy. The Suir bounds it on the N., and its estuary called Waterford harbor, on the E.; the Blackwater, with its estuary called Youghal harbor, on the W. On the coast are the bays Tramore, Dungarvan and Ardmore, and at a distance from land, the Nymph bank, once thought to afford an inexhaustible supply of fish, but now less highly estimated. Lead and iron mines have been wrought, but generally with little profit; the copper mineral wealth is of high value; one mine, the Knockmahon, worked by the Irish Mining Company, is very productive. Near Cappoquin and Whitechurch are valuable quarries of marble. The occupations are chiefly pasturage and dairy farming. Large quantities of butter and bacon are exported. Cotton is manufactured. The county is divided into 8 baronies, viz.:

Coshmore and Coshbride, Decies within Drum, Decies without Drum, Gaultiere, Glenahiry, Kilculliheen, Middlethird, Upperthird, which with Waterford City, contains 82 parishes and 1,557 town lands, having a population of 123,310 persons, or 24,225 families, inhabiting 21,252 houses; also 820 uninhabited, and 48 building. It returns 5 members to Parliament, 2 for the county at large, constituency 3,279, with 16 polling places, 2 for Waterford City; constituency 1,297, and 1 for Dungarvan borough, constituency 340. The towns are Waterford, Dungarvan, Portlaw, Tramore, Lismore, Cappoquin, Tallow Passage, Kilmacthomas, Bunmahon.

WESTMEATH COUNTY.

Westmeath, an inland county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Longford and Meath; E. Meath; S. Kings; W. Roscommon. Length N. and S. 35 miles; breadth E. and W. 40 miles; comprising an area of 453,468 acres, of which 111,752 are under tillage, 253,964 in pasture, 8,427 in plantations, 54,898 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 22,427 under water. The surface is very picturesque, being much diversified with hill, valley, lake, but no mountain. The soil is fertile, on a limestone sub-soil; there is much bog. The principal lakes are Ree, an expansion of the Shannon in the W., Sheelin in the N., and Dereveragh, Owel and Ennel, the source of the Brosna, in the interior. The occupations are wholly agricultural, chiefly grazing and dairy farming; the crops, oats and potatoes, with some wheat. Flour and meal are manufactured in large quantities. The Royal canal passes through the county, and a branch of the Grand canal to Kilbeggan. The county is divided into 12 baronies, viz: Brawney, Clonlonan, Corkaree, Delvin, Farbill, Fartullagh Fore, Kilkenny, W., Moyashel and Magheradernon Moycashel, Moygoish, Rathconrath, and contains 63 parishes and 1,356 town lands, with a population of 78,432 persons, or 15,854 families, inhabiting 15,152 houses; also 456 uninhabited, and 36 building. It is in Meath diocese, with a small portion in that of Ardagh. The county re-

turns three members to Parliament, two for the county at large; constituency 3,552, with 17 polling places, and one for Athlone borough; constituency 342. It is in the home circuit. The towns are Athlone, Mullingar, Moate, Kilbeggan, Castlepollard, Kinnegad, Delvin, Clonmellon.

WEXFORD COUNTY.

Wexford, a maritime county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Wicklow; E. St. George's Channel; S. Atlantic Ocean; W. Waterford, Kilkenny and Carlow. Length N. and S. 55 miles; breadth 34 miles, comprising an area of 576,588 acres, of which 244,276 are under tillage, 273,884 in pasture, 11,763 in plantations, 42,997 waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 3,668 under water. The eastern coast is dangerous from sandbanks, and unprovided with harbors; that of Wexford being barred, and Courtown fit only for small craft. Off the S. coast are the islands of the Saltees, Koningsmore and Koningsbeg, near the latter of which there is a floating light; and off Carnsore point, the S. E. extremity of Ireland, is the Tusker Rock, with a revolving light, two faces bright and one red. The surface is hilly, rising into the ridge of Mount Leinster and Blackstairs on the N. W., and declining into a level peninsula to the S. E. The Slaney, navigable for barges to Enniscorthy, passes through the county. The Barrow, navigable for the large vessels to New Ross, and for barges to Athy, skirts it on the W. The greater portion of the soil is a light or stiff clay, chiefly on a sub-soil of clay-slate. The occupations are mostly agricultural; dairies are numerous. The chief crops, oats, barley and potatoes, with beans, in Firth and Bargy, which are inhabited by a colony from Pembrokeshire, settled there on the first landing of the English; much round fish is taken on the coast. The county is divided into 10 baronies, viz: Ballaghkeen N., Ballaghkeen S., Bantry, Bargy, Forth, Gorey, Scarawalsh, Shelburne, Shelmaliere E., Shelmaliere W., and contains 144 parishes and 1,600 town lands, having a population of 132,666 persons, or 27,373 families, occupying 24,982 houses; also

495 uninhabited, and 38 building. It is in Ferns diocese, with a small portion in that of Dublin. The county returns four members to Parliament, two for the county at large; constituency 6,018, with 14 polling places, and one for each of the boroughs of Wexford and New Ross; constituencies 508 and 218. It is in the Leinster circuit.

THE towns are Wexford, New Ross, Enniscorthy, Gorey, Newtownbarry, Duncannon and Ferns.

WICKLOW COUNTY.

WICKLOW, a maratime county in Leinster province. Boundaries: N. Dublin; E. St. George's Channel; S. Wexford; W. Carlow and Kildare. Length 40 miles; breadth 33 miles, comprising an area of 500,178 acres, of which 117,999 are under tillage, 249,206 in pasture, 19,557 in plantations, and 112,326 in waste, bog, mountain, etc., and 1,090 under water. The coast is mostly precipitous, and dangerous from sand-banks, the N. and S. extremities of which are marked by floating lights; there are also 2 fixed lights on Wicklow Head. The surface is much diversified and highly picturesque, rising in the interior into mountain groups, the highest summit of which is Lugnaquilla, 3,039 feet above high sea level, and intersected by deep and romantic valleys, of which the principal are Glenmalur, Glen of Imail, Glen of the Downs, Devil's Glen, and the Vale of Avoca; it declines to the sea on the E., and to the general level of the country on the W. The principal lakes are Loughs, Tay or Luggelaw, Dan, Bray, and Glendelough. The Liffey and Slaney rise in the county; the Avonmore, or Avoca, flows through it. The sub-soil is granite in the mountain districts, and clay-slate on the declivities. The mining operations are very considerable—lead and copper being raised in quantities; gold has also been found. The soil is very fertile in the lower tracts, and along the river courses. Marl is found in many places. The occupations, excepting the Avoca district, are almost wholly agricultural; the crops, oats, potatoes, and some wheat; pasturage much attended to; the fisheries neglected; the

manufacture of flannels, once extensive, now nearly extinct.

The county town of Wicklow is connected with Dublin by a railway, which is extended through the Vale of Avoca and mining district as far as Enniscorthy. Wicklow has also a good hotel on the Murragh, close to the railway station. The mines of the county have attracted a good deal of attention, and of late mining operations have been considerably increased. The county is divided into eight baronies, namely: Arklow, Ballinacor N., Ballinacor S., Newcastle, Rathdown, Shillelagh, Talbotstown L., Talbotstown U., and contains 59 parishes. It is in the dioceses of Dublin and Glendelough, with portions in those of Leighlin and Ferns, with a population of 78,697, or 14,734 families, inhabiting 14,111 houses; also 625 uninhabited, and 47 building. The county returns 2 members to Parliament; constituency 3,527, with 17 polling places. It is in the Leinster circuit. The towns are Bray, Arklow, Wicklow, Baltinglass, Rathdrum, Carnew, Rathnew, Dunlavin.

CITIES AND BOROUGHS.

ARMAGH CITY.

ARMAGH, an inland city and parliamentary borough, in Armagh barony and county, province of Ulster. 64 miles N. N. W. from Dublin, and 30 miles from Belfast; comprising within its municipal boundary 269 acres; population 8,946, inhabiting 1,626 houses, being the most populous inland town in Ireland excepting Kilkenny, Lurgan, Clonmel, and Newtownards. It is the seat of the Archiepiscopal See of the Primate of Ireland. The town stands on the acclivities of a hill, of which the Cathedral tops the summit. There are also a Protestant Chapel of Ease, a Roman Catholic Cathedral, 1 Roman

Catholic Chapel, 2 Methodist, 3 Presbyterian, and 1 Independent. The other public buildings are the County Court house, District Probate Registry Court, Prison, Infirmary, Fever Hospital, District Lunatic Asylum, Macan Asylum for the blind, Sheil's Almshouses, 21 in number, the Royal School, a Public Library, built and endowed by Primate Robinson, Market House, Linen Hall, Yarn Hall, Music Hall and Tontine buildings, in which is a large public assembly room, and a spacious newsroom, Drelincourt's School, Roman Catholic Seminary, and other schools, an Observatory, and the Natural History and Philosophical Society's house, also barracks for 200 men. The Callan, which empties itself into the Blackwater, passes near the town, and the Ulster Canal within 4 miles. Railways connect the town with Belfast, Newry, Warrenpoint, Greenore, Londonderry, Sligo, Dublin, etc. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency, 584. Rateable value of property £16,613. The borough receipts amount to £729, and the expenditure £716. Markets are held on Tuesday for general purposes, and on Wednesday and Saturday for grain, and a fair, for the sale of horses, cows and sheep, on the first Thursday of the month. There are two newspapers published in the city—the Armagh *Guardian* and the Ulster *Gazette*.

ATHLONE BOROUGH.

Athlone, an inland town and Parliamentary borough in Westmeath and Roscommon counties, partly in Leinster and partly in Connaught province, 76 miles west from Dublin; the boundaries for municipal purposes being defined in Local Act of 1852, and for Parliamentary purposes were extended to the same limit by the Reform Act of 1868. It is situated on both sides of the river Shannon, and being considered one of the principal military positions in Ireland, is secured by strong works on the Roscommon side, covering 15 acres and containing 2 magazines, an ordnance store, an armory for 15,000 stand of arms, and barracks for 1,500 men. The

Shannon commissioners have much improved the navigation of the river at this place by the construction of large lock custom wharves, a wier wall, and the magnificent cut-stone bridge. Large river steamers can now ply without interruption from Killaloe to Carrick-on-Shannon, a distance of 116 miles. A brisk trade with Dublin and Limerick is maintained by means of the river and the Royal and Grand Canals, and Midland, Great Western, and Great Southern, and Western Railways, besides which the Great Northern and Western Railway has its eastern terminus here. There are in the town 2 Parochial churches, 2 Roman Catholic churches, Franciscan and Augustinian chapels, Presbyterian, Baptist, and 2 Methodist meeting-houses, and a dilapidated court-house, and Bridewell on the Roscommon side of the river. A new court-house is about to be erected on an improved site. There is a bi-weekly market for grain, and the cattle-fairs and markets are growing in importance, owing to the central position of the town and the extensive railway communication. A woolen factory has been established by Messrs. Gleeson & Smyth. There is a valuable fishery adjoining the weir wall. The population, 6,566, inhabiting 1,093 houses. The property of the extinguished corporation is vested in the town commissioners. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 352. Rateable value of property, £9,535; town receipts, £2,699; expenditure, £2,629; debt, £1,784. The Westmeath *Independent* newspaper is published here on Saturday.

BELFAST BOROUGH.

Belfast, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough, the capital of Ulster, the chief manufacturing and commercial town of Ireland, and since 1850 the County town of Antrim, chiefly in Antrim county, 101 miles north of Dublin, comprising an area in the new boundary of 5,992 acres, including 1,670 acres in the suburb of Ballymacarrett, County Down. In 1851 the population was 100,031, in '61, 121,602, inhabiting 10,595 houses, and in '71

the population had increased to 174,412, occupying 27,691 houses. The rateable property under the general Valuation Acts amounted in '62 to £278,807, increased to £489,824 in '76, being an increase in 14 years of £211,017. The number of new buildings erected within the borough during the same period was 17,006. The town is about 12 miles from the sea, at the mouth of the Lagan, which bounds it on the S. E., and flows immediately into Belfast Lough, which is twelve miles in length and five in breadth at the entrance, gradually narrowing as it approaches the town. The river Lagan, which separates the counties of Antrim and Down, is crossed by five bridges; the Queen's bridge is a splendid structure, and Ormeau bridge, of four arches, opened in '63, at a cost of £17,000, is a magnificent work. Belfast is built on an alluvial deposit, and lies low, the greater portion being not more than six feet above high sea level, yet on account of its geographical position it is healthy. Its places of worship are Church of Ireland 21; Roman Catholic 6; Presbyterian 31; Unitarian 3; Reformed Presbyterian 2; United Presbyterian 1; Evangelical Union 2; Baptist 2; Independent 3; Methodist 15; Quaker 1. Its educational establishments are the Queen's College, a fine building in the Elizabethan style, the General Assembly's College, the Methodist College, the Royal Academical Institution, the Belfast Academy, the Ladies' Industrial School for Girls, being the first Ragged school established in Ireland, 130 national schools in the town and its vicinity, and 77 private seminaries. The public libraries are in the Queen's College, the Royal Academical Institution and the Linen Hall. There are sixteen newspapers, one of which, the *News-Letter*, dates from 1737. The other public institutions are the Charitable Society's Poor-house, the Lying-in Hospital, the Belfast Royal Hospital, the Belfast Opthalmic Hospital, Hospital for Skin Diseases, the Ulster Eye, Ear and Throat Hospital, the Samaritan Hospital and three Children's Hospitals, the Nurses Home and Training School, the District Lunatic Asylum, the Deaf and Dumb and Blind Asylum, the Union Work-House, the County Court House and Prison, the Malone

Protestant Reformatory, the Magdalen Asylum, the Ulster Female Penitentiary, the White Linen Hall, the Commercial buildings and exchange, the Harbor office, the Belfast, Ulster and Northern Joint Stock Banks, the branch offices of the Bank of Ireland, Provincial, National, and Savings Banks, and a large number devoted to charity, education and art. An extensive range of offices for the Customs, Inland, Revenue and Post Office, and a fine block of buildings for Town Hall and other corporate purposes; and in the suburbs there is the Ormeau Park, the Falls Park, the Royal Botanic Garden, and the new borough Cemetery. In 1870 a clock tower was erected in memory of the late Prince Consort; it is called the Albert Memorial Clock Tower; the height from the ground to the four clock dials is 90 feet, and the entire height of the structure 143 feet.

The borough of Belfast returns two members to Parliament; constituency 18,963, and the town, which is identical with the parliamentary borough, is governed by a corporation of ten aldermen and thirty counselors, from which a mayor is annually chosen. The number of burgesses in '76, was 5,220, and the total revenue of the borough in '75 was £143,870, and the expenditure £146,876. Debt, £687,628. Belfast is the great centre of the Irish linen manufacture, having within itself the great majority of the spinning mills and power-loom weaving factories in Ireland. The other chief branches of industry are cotton spinning and power-loom weaving, iron founding on an extensive scale, and linen and yarn bleaching. There are also print works, flour mills, chemical works, oil mills, alabaster and barilla saw mills, distilleries, breweries, tan yards, patent felt manufactories, etc.; two large ship-yards, with two patent slips and three graving docks, one of which is among the largest in the kingdom, and yards for manufacturing ropes and sail cloth.

There is an iron ship-building yard on Queen's Island, employing upwards of 2,000 hands, from which has been launched some of the finest steamers and sailing ships afloat, including the celebrated White Star line of mail steamers. This yard has been placed on the admiralty

list as suitable for building for the royal navy. The Harbor commissioners, elected by the ratepayers, have intrusted to them all the very important matters connected with the shipping interests of the port, and the improvements of the harbor. The quays extend in a continuous line from the Queen's bridge on both sides of the river for about a mile. Before the recent improvements of the harbor were commenced, there were only two tidal docks, the Prince's and the Clarendon; to these have been added the Abercorn basin, and the Hamilton graving dock, the Spencer dock and the Dufferin dock, together with a tidal basin at the entrance of the Spencer dock. These new docks add about 25 acres of water area, and upwards of a mile of quayage to the shipping accommodation of the port. There has been expended on these recent improvements, the sum of £304,823, making the total assets of the commissioners amount to £873,317. The surplus assets of the trust amount to £228,272. The Harbor Commissioners' receipts from dues were £75,606, and on loan £64,637. Ordinary expenditure £70,637; on renewal of Albert and Queen's quays, £14,562, and on new works £7,423. A pair of masting shears capable of lifting a weight of 50 tons has been erected at the Abercorn basin. Horse railways connect the docks with the railway termini, and have also been introduced in all the leading thoroughfares. Markets on Friday; cattle and sheep market on Tuesday, besides daily markets for domestic purposes, and monthly fairs on the first Wednesday of the month. Flax market on Friday.

The inland trade is carried on by the Lagan Navigation, which connects the town with Lough Neagh; the Ulster canal, which connects Lough Neagh with Enniskillen; and by the Great Northern Counties and County Down Railways. By the great Northern Railway there is direct communication six times daily with Dublin, and twice a day with Galway. A railroad from the cave hill, 3 miles from Belfast, conveys limestone to the quays. The termini of the Great Northern Counties and County Down Railways are handsome structures. The commerce of Belfast is extensive; the imports were £12,417,000,

and the exports about £11,915,000. The custom duties amounted to £382,549, and in '73 to £409,050. The number and tonnage of vessels which entered the port from '75 was 7,475 vessels, 1,434,754 tons, and the tonnage registered at the port was 406 vessels, 65,524 tons.

CARLOW BOROUGH.

Carlow, an inland town and Parliamentary borough in Carlow barony and county, and Leinster province, on the river Barrow, 40 miles S. W. by S. from Dublin, comprising within its electoral boundary an area of 572 acres, which includes the suburb of Graigue, in the Queen's county on the west side of the river; population of Carlow, 7,842, inhabiting 1,461 houses. The public buildings are three Potestant churches, two Roman Catholic churches, the Roman Catholic college and school, two nunneries, the Christian Brothers' School, a Presbyterian, a Methodist, and a Friends' Meeting House, the County Court House, Prison Infirmary and Union Work House, the District Lunatic Asylum, a Fever Hospital and Barracks. A bridge of five arches over the river Barrow connects the suburb of Graigue with the town. The borough is under the Towns Improvement Act, and returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 298; rateable value of property, £10,946; borough receipts, £561; expenditure, £429. A branch of the Great Southern & Western Railway connects Carlow with the metropolis, and with Kilkenny and Waterford. The Barrow, which is navigable above the town to its junction with the grand canal at Athy, affords great facilities of export, chiefly of grain and butter, to Dublin and Waterford. There are in the town and its vicinity, several flour mills and malt houses; also an extensive brewery; butter of superior quality is largely exported; two newspapers, the Carlow *Post* and the Carlow *Sentinel*, are published in the town.

CARRICKFERGUS COUNTY, OF THE TOWN AND BOROUGH.

CARRICKFERGUS, a maritime county of a town and a Parliamentary borough in Ulster province, situate on the N. shore of Carrickfergus Bay, or Belfast Lough, and enclosed on all other sides by Antrim county; is 111½ miles N. from Dublin. It comprises an area of 16,700 acres, of which 12,483 are arable, 4,086 uncultivated, and 129 in the town. The surface is hilly. Lough Mourne, a lake of about 90 acres, is 556 feet above high sea level. The population of the county of the town, 9,397, inhabiting 1875 houses. Carrickfergus was formerly a place of great strength; a great part of the walls remain, and the Castle built on a rock projecting into the sea, is still kept up as an arsenal, and is mounted with heavy guns. Its public buildings are the Town Hall, Market Place, Parish Church, Presbyterian Dissenting and Methodist Meeting-Houses, Roman Catholic Church, Court House, and Jail. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 1351; rateable value of property £23,947; borough revenue £1,114; expenditure £1,041; harbor revenue £595; debt £5,616. The town has some trade and manufactures, and extensive fisheries. The oysters taken off the coast are prized for their size and flavor. About one and a half miles north-west of the town, at Duncrue, rock-salt has been discovered in the triassic sand-stone deposit, and considerable quantities of excellent salt are annually manufactured. Vessels of 100 tons and upwards can now discharge at the landing-quay, and there is a patent slip where vessels can be repaired. Markets on Saturday; a butter and pork market on Monday, and one monthly for the sale of cattle. A branch of the Belfast and Northern Counties Railway terminates here, and there is a line to Larne, from whence steamers ply to Stranraer, in Scotland, every week-day at 4.50 P. M.

CASHEL CITY.

Cashel, an inland city and formerly a Parliamentary borough in the county of Tipperary, 100 miles S. W. from Dublin, comprises a municipal area of 4,018 acres. The population 4,562, inhabiting 788 houses. The city is built on the S. and E. sides of an isolated rock, called the rock of Cashel, which rises steeply to the height of about 300 feet, in the middle of an extensive plain two miles east of the river Suir. It was the seat of the Archepiscopal, now the Episcopal See of Cashel, and preserves several relics of its ancient splendor. On the summit of the rock was the palace of the ancient Kings of Munster, the ancient Cathedral, Cormac's Chapel, the Episcopal Palace, and a Round Tower, the extensive remains of which, from their elevated position above the surrounding country, have a grand effect. The modern public buildings are the new Cathedral, the Episcopal Palace, now converted into a Deanery House, the Roman Catholic Church, the Court House, Market House, Fever Hospital, National School, Town Commissioner's Hall, Barracks, and County Tipperary Infirmary. The income of the borough is derived from landed estates adjoining the town, granted by Bishop Maurianus for the benefit of the inhabitants. Revenue £3,106; expenditure £2,903; debt £1,156; rateable value of property £5,687. The Great Southern and Western Railway passes within five miles of the city. Market days Wednesday and Saturday. A weekly newspaper, the Cashel *Gazette* is published here.

CLONMEL BOROUGH.

Clonmel, an inland town and Parliamentary borough, chiefly in the S. Riding of Tipperary, but partly in Waterford county, Munster province, 104 miles S. W. from Dublin, comprising 331 acres; population 10,112, inhabiting 1,378 houses. It is built on both sides of the Suir and on Moore and Long Islands, which are connected with the main land by 3 bridges. The public

buildings are the Parish Church, 2 Roman Catholic Parish Churches, and a Franciscan Friary, Presbyterian, Unitarian, Baptist, Friends, and Methodist Meeting-Houses, 2 Christian Brothers' Communities, 2 Convents, a Female school under the Sisters of Charity, an Endowed School, and a Model school under the National Board of Mechanics' Institute, Court House and Prison for the S. Riding, a Fever Hospital and Dispensary, the District and Auxillary Lunatic Asylum, a Market House and Barracks. The woolen manufacture was established here as far back as 1667, but has ceased to exist.

The business of tanning is extensively carried on. There is a large brewery in the town, numerous flour mills and warehouses. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 445. Rateable value of property £15,521. The corporation have estates comprising 4,809 Irish acres. Borough receipts £1,579; expenditure £1,415. The number of burgesses on the roll 278; market days Wednesday and Saturday. Fairs are held on the 5th of May and the 5th of November, and on the first Wednesday in other months. Two newspapers are published in the town, the Clonmel *Chronicle*, and Tipperary *Free Press*, and a branch office has been opened for Bassett's Daily *Chronicle*, Limerick.

COLERAINE BOROUGH.

Coleraine, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough in the N. E. Liberties of Coleraine, in Londonderry county, Ulster province, 145 miles N. from Dublin; comprising a municipal area of 205 statute acres; the area of the Parliamentary borough is 963 acres; population, 6,522, inhabiting 1,354 houses. The town is built on both sides of the river Bann, 4 miles from the sea, over which is a splendid stone bridge of 3 arches, 96 yards in length, by 32 feet in breadth, and cost £14,500. It consists of Central Square called the Diamond, and several diverging streets. The portion on the W. side of the Bann, is called Waterside, and Killowen. The public buildings are 2 Parish Churches, 2 Roman Catho-

lic churches, 3 Presbyterian, Independent, Methodist, and Baptist meeting-houses; the Town Hall, Court-House, an endowed School, a National Model School, and Free Schools, erected by the Irish Society of London, at a cost of upwards of £5,000. Coleraine is fast improving in spinning and weaving factories, and also in pork-curing establishments. The salmon fisheries on the rivers Bann and Foyle, are farmed at £4,650 annually, by the Irish Society of London, successors of King James' Planters. In 1873 the number of vessels entered inwards was 422; tonnage 46,589; cleared outwards 221 vessels of 31,163 tons. Revenue £2,463; expenditure £2,341; debt £15,760; harbor revenue £850; expenditure £910; rateable value of property £13,109. The borough returns one member to Parliament; constituency 441; two newspapers: the Coleraine *Chronicle*, and the Coleraine *Constitution* are published in the town every Saturday.

CORK COUNTY OF A CITY, AND PARLIAMENTARY BOROUGH.

Cork, a county of a city, and Parliamentary borough, in Munster province, the third in Ireland in population, wealth and commerce; 159 miles S. W. from Dublin, comprising, with its ancient boundaries, an area of 48,006 acres, and within its modern municipal boundaries 2,683 acres; population of the municipal borough 78,642, or within the Parliamentary boundary 100,518, inhabiting 14,651 houses. The city is situated on the river Lee, which here diverges into several branches, and forms an island; is 11 miles inland from the entrance of the river to Cork harbor. The public buildings are 1 Cathedral, 6 Parish Churches and Chapels of Ease of the establishment, 4 Roman Catholic Parochial Churches, 5 Monasteries, 4 Nunneries, with a chapel attached to each; 2 Presbyterian, 4 Methodist, 1 Baptist, 1 Independent, 1 Frends' Meeting House, the Palace of the Bishop, Diocesan Library, County Court House, Military Barrack, Queen's College, County and City Prisons, Bank of Ireland, Provincial, National, Munster, Hibernian and Sav-

ings Banks, North and South Infirmaries, Ophthmalic Hospital, Hospital for incurable cancer patients, Lunatic Asylum, Custom House, Commercial Building, Chamber of Commerce, Royal Cork Institution, and 5 Industrial Schools. The headquarters and staff of the Cork or Southern Military District of Ireland are stationed here. Near the city is a cemetery, after the plan of Pere La Chaise, on the site of the old Botanic Garden; St. Finn Barr's Cemetery, established by the corporation under the Burial (Ireland) Act 1856, on which they have expended £10,000. A portion of the Cemetery is set apart for Protestants and Protestant dissenters, and a portion for Roman Catholics. The Marina is a picturesque public walk 1½ miles in length along the S. bank of the river; and the Mardyke, a public walk a mile in length on the W. of the city. A park of about 240 acres extends from Victoria road along the south bank of the river to Black Rock, which has been converted into a race-course. There are 9 bridges over the river and its branches; in Patrick street a handsome bronze statue to the memory of Father Mathew, the Apostle of Temperance, has been erected.

The corporation consists of the Mayor, 14 Aldermen, and 42 Town Counselors; the number of burgesses, 2,005. The borough returns 2 members to Parliament; constituency 4,371. The net annual value of property under the tenement valuation act is £210,987; borough receipts £72,378; debt £193,891; expenditures for cleansing, paving, lighting, etc., £70,652. The principal manufactures are tanning, distilling, brewing, iron foundries, gloves, ginghams and freizes. The trade is also extensive in grain, provisions and butter—of the latter about 340,000 firkins are shipped annually. The corn market covers a space of 8 or 10 acres, and the butter market is interesting on account of the perfect system of checks by which the sales are conducted. The extent of the quays is over 4 miles, of which more than 2½ miles is used by shipping; on the improvements connected with the river £300,000 has been expended by the Harbor Commissioners; harbor revenue in 1875, £64,918; expenditures £55,349. The corporation have erected 2 bridges

at a cost of £25,000—one finished in 1861, the other in 1864. Iron ship building is carried on with great spirit by the Cork Steamship Company, Robinson and Co., and a company established 1872, "The Cork Harbor Docks and Warehouses Company, limited," with a capital of £120,000, have purchased the Royal Victoria Docks at Passage West, and also the Queenstown Docks. A large quantity of grain is imported into Cork harbor, and the company has already erected large granaries for the storage of corn. In those establishments the largest merchant ships can be built or repaired. Three newspapers, the *Constitution*, *Examiner* and *Herald*, are published daily in the city and the Cork weekly *Herald* on Saturday. Within the harbor are Great Island, Little Island, Foaty and Spike Island, on which is a bomb-proof artillery barrack and a convict depot; Haulbowline Island, containing an Ordinance Depot, and Rocky Island, in which are two powder magazines excavated from the rock. A naval dockyard is now constructing at Haulbowline; the design embraces a basin of 12 acres, with 30 feet over the sill at the entrance, at high water neaps with 2000 feet of wharf accommodation, and with space for 2 docks leading out of the basin. The cost is estimated at $150,000.

DOWNPATRICK BOROUGH.

Downpatrick, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough in Down county, Lecale barony, and Ulster province; 74 miles N. N. E. from Dublin, comprising an area of 1,487 acres, of which 278 are in the town, and 1,209 in the rural district. Population 4,155, inhabiting 903 houses. The town is situate, in a steep valley near the S. W. angle of Strangford Lough, is divided into the English, Irish and Scotch quarters, and consists of four main streets meeting near its centre. The public buildings are the Cathedral of Down diocese, the Parish Church, a neat Parochial school in Church street, a Roman Catholic Church, 2 Presbyterian, and 2 Methodist Meeting Houses, the Diocesan School, the County Court House,

Prison, Infirmary and Fever Hospital, the Northern and Ulster Banks, Alms-houses, Widows'-houses, and the new Lunatic Asylum near the town. The town is lighted with gas. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 281; rateable value of property £10,093; borough rates levied in 1871, £207, 11s. 11d. A small export trade is carried on by means of vessels of 100 tons from Lough Strangford, which can discharge at the Quoil Quay, one mile from the town, but vessels of larger tonnage can discharge at the steamboat quay lower down the river. The County Down Railway connects the town with Belfast, the fair towns of Crossgar, Saintfield, Ballynahinch, Comber, and Newtownards, and is continued from Downpatrick to the fashionable bathing place of Newcastle. The line to the port of Donaghadee was completed in 1862. Market days Tuesday and Saturday. One newspaper is published in the town, the Downpatrick *Recorder*, on Saturday's.

DROGHEDA COUNTY OF THE TOWN AND BOROUGH.

Drogheda, a maritime county of a town and Parliamentary borough, in Leinster province; situate between Meath and Louth counties, and 31½ miles N. from Dublin by railway, comprising an area of 9 square miles, or 5,780 acres. Population of the municipal borough 13,510, inhabiting 3,222 houses. The town is situate on the Boyne, 4 miles from the sea. The public buildings are three Protestant Churches, two Roman Catholic Churches, three Friaries, four Nunneries, a Presbyterian and a Methodist Meeting House, an Endowed School, the Mansion Tholsel, Town Prison, Linen Hall, Custom House, Inland Revenue office, Corn Market, Savings Bank, and Infantry Barracks, capable of accomodating 400 men. The linen manufacture, after flourishing here for some time, gave way to that of cotton, which in turn was superseded by flax spinning, but both the latter are now carried on to a great extent. A large cotton factory has been erected by Benjamin Whitworth, who, at his sole

expense, has built a spacious and handsome town hall. The same gentleman has contributed half the cost of new waterworks, by which means 800,000 gallons of the purest water will be conveyed to the town daily. Three flax mills give employment to upwards of 1,000 persons; that called St. Mary's, which is the largest, cost £50,000 for its erection. There are six corn mills, five salt works, two breweries, eight tanneries, and four soap works. The iron works of Grendon & Co. give employment to upwards of 300 persons in the manufacture of steam engines, boilers, iron bridges, etc. Cairnes' brewery is celebrated for the excellence of its ale, which is largely exported to the colonies. The corporation consists of six aldermen and eighteen town counselors, elected from three wards. The town returns one member to Parliament; constituency 697. Rateable value of property, £27,988; borough receipts, £3,670; expenditure for paving, lighting, etc., £3,245. The cattle market is held on Thursday and corn market on Saturday.

Drogheda carries on a considerable trade, chiefly with Liverpool. The exports are principally corn meal, flour, cattle, provisions, linen, etc. The harbor, formed by the waters of the Boyne 4 miles from the sea, extends about a half a mile below the bridge with 16 to 18 feet of water abreast the quays, at which vessels of 400 tons can moor; the tide flows up as far as old bridge 2¼ miles above the town, from whence the Boyne navigation for barges of 50 tons extends inland to Navan, 19 miles. The port and harbor are under commissioners. Harbor receipts are £3,606. The number of vessels entered inwards in '73 was 707 tonnage, 115,673 cleared outwards, 45 of 5,231 tons. At the entrance of the harbor are 3 light-houses, 2 of which are movable according to the changes in the bar. The Dublin and Drogheda Railway was opened for traffic in 1844, and Drogheda has direct communication to Enniskillen, Londonderry, Belfast, Navan, Kells, and Oldcastle. A magnificent viaduct 95 feet in height, across the river Boyne, connects the Drogheda Belfast Junction Railways. Two newspapers are published in the town, the Drogheda *Argus* and Drogheda *Conservative*.

DUNDALK BOROUGH.

DUNDALK, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough in upper Dundalk barony, Louth county and Leinster province, 50 miles N. from Dublin, comprising an area of 1,411 acres; population, 11,377. The township of Dundalk has an area of 1,386 acres and a population of 11,327. It is situated at the mouth of the small river of Castletown, on the coast of Dundalk Bay. The public buildings are the Parish Church, 3 Roman Catholic churches, a Friary Convent and Schools, Presbyterian and Methodist MeetingHouses, the County Court House, and Prison Union Work-house, Infirmary, Market House, Butter Crane buildings, Incorporated Society's School, Endowed Grammar School, Erasmus Smith Schools, St. Mary's College, Christian Brothers' School, and Cavalry barracks. The Exchange Building contains the town hall, free public library and reading room with spacious public offices. The sum of £8,000 has been expended on the erection of these buildings, which are now the property of the town commissioners. There are in the town a distillery, brewery, flax and jute spinning-mill, flour-mills, salt works, ship building and tan yards.

The borough returns one member to Parliament; constituency 541; rateable value of property £19,615. The lighting, cleaning, and watching of the town is vested in commissioners under the Towns Improvement Act. Borough rates levied £1,261; expenditures £1,019; debt £2,200; harbor revenue £8,561; market day Monday. The port and harbor on which £22,150 has been expended which is in charge of commissioners under act 3 and 4, vic. c. 119 since 1837, is in progress of improvement. Railway communication is complete to Belfast, and the Irish North-Western Railway line is extended from Dundalk to Enniskillen and Londonderry, and from Dundalk to Cootehill, and from Dundalk via. Clones, to Cavan, Mullingar, Ballinasloe, and Galway, and thereby connecting the Western and North-Western counties with the port. A line of railway from Dundalk to Greenore harbor, in Carlingford Lough, was opened in 1873, and a

special service of steam packets to and from Holyhead, organized by the London and North-Western Railway company, and through-booking of passengers and goods brought in operation to and from all the chief stations on that company's lines in England to those of the Irish North-Western, the Dublin and Belfast Junction, and Ulster Railway companies. Large quantities of farm produce and live stock are exported by the steamers of the Dundalk Steam Packet Company, which ply four times a week to Liverpool. The number of vessels entered inwards in 1873 was 829, of 144,850 tons; cleared outwards 392, of 103,930 tons. The imports consist of timber and iron, jute, Indian corn, flour, groceries, &c. There are three newspapers in the town. The Newry *Examiner*, published on Wednesday and Saturday, the *Democrat*, published on Saturday, and the Dundalk *Herald*, published on Saturday.

DUNGANNON BOROUGH.

Dungannon, an inland town and Parliamentary borough in Dungannon barony, Tyrone county, and Ulster province; 94½ miles N. N. W. from Dublin, comprising an area, according to its ancient chartered boundary, of 836 acres, and to its modern parliamentary boundary, of 230 acres; population 3,886; inhabiting 727 houses. It is situate on the acclivity of a hill, at a distance of 8 miles from Lough Neagh, and consists of a square and several streets. The public buildings are the Parish Church, Roman Catholic Church, two Presbyterian and two Methodist Meeting Houses, Court House, Bridewell, Market House, the offices of Belfast Banking Co., Provincial and Savings Bank, Union Work House, Temperance Hall, Fever Hospital, Shield's Alms Houses, Endowed School, Dungannon Institute, and the Earl and Countess of Ranfurly's School. The town is lighted with gas. The markets have been enlarged and improved by the Earl of Ranfurly, who on coming of age, offered building leases for 999 years at moderate rents. Linens are manufactured, and also coarse earthenware, fire-brick and tile works; there are

flax spinning mills and a corn mill in the town. Dickson & Co., the proprietors of the corn and flour mills, have erected an extensive power-loom weaving factory on the site of the old distillery, and also a number of mechanics and workmen's dwelling houses. The borough returns one member to Parliament; constituency 340. Rateable value of property, £7,629; poor and sanitary rates, £636; town rates levied, £238; expenditure, £200. The general market is on Thursday, and that for grain on Monday and Thursday.

DUNGARVAN BOROUGH.

Dungarvan, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough in Decies without Drum barony, Waterford county, and Munster province, 125 miles S. W. from Dublin; comprising an area of 8,499 acres, of which 392 are in the town and 8,107 in the rural district; population, 7,719, inhabiting 1,538 houses. The town is situated on the Bay of Dungarvan, at the mouth of the river Colligan, which divides it into two portions connected by a bridge and causeway; the eastern is called Abbeyside. The public buildings are the Town Hall, the Provincial Bank—a fine structure with granite front—the National and Munster Banks, the Parish Church, 2 Roman Catholic Churches, 2 Convents, 1 Monastery, a Fever Hospital, Sessions House, Union Workhouse, Market House, and millitary barracks. There is also a steammill and 2 breweries. A line of railway is in course of construction between Dungarvan, Waterford and Lismore. The exports are chiefly grain, butter and cattle. Gas works have been established and the town is well lighted. There are two weekly markets for the sale of butter, on Tuesday and Saturday. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 340. Rateable valuation £14,948; borough rates levied in '75, £214; expenditure £358; debt £374; harbor revenue £288.

ENNIS BOROUGH.

ENNIS, an inland town and Parliamentary borough in Islands barony, Clare county, and Munster province, 141 miles W. S. W. from Dublin, comprising an area of 484 acres; population 6,503; situated on the Fergus, which is crossed by four bridges. The public buildings are the Parish Church, the Roman Catholic Cathedral of Killaloe diocese, Methodist Meeting House, Presbyterian Chapel, Franciscan Friary, the Convent of Mercy, with an Orphanage and Industrial School attached, Ennis College, Erasmus Smith's foundation, the Killaloe Roman Catholic Diocesan College, a National School, County Court House, erected at a cost of £12,000, Fever Hospital, Infirmary Prison, Union Work House and Market House; a Public Library has been erected; also a bridge over the river Fergus at Ennis Mills. The Provincial and National Banks have erected handsome edifices. There is also a monument to O'Connell, with a splendid colossal statue by Cahill, on the site of the old Court House. A Lunatic Asylum for the county Clare has been erected at a cost of £54,000, in the vicinity of the town. There are extensive flour mills, but no manufactures of importance are carried on. Grain, flour and other commodities are conveyed for export in lighters, for shipment to Clare, two miles lower down the river Fergus. Markets on Saturday. Large fairs are held in a commodious walled-in fair-green. Races are held in the neighborhood. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 236; rateable value of property £6,627. The cleaning of the town is vested in 18 commissioners, under the Towns Improvement Act. Town rates, etc., levied in 1875, £436; expenditure £409. There are two newspapers published in Ennis, the Clare *Journal*, established in 1776, published on Monday and Thursday; and the Clare *Journal*, published every Saturday.

ENNISKILLEN BOROUGH.

ENNISKILLEN, an inland town and Parliamentary borough in Magheraboy and Tyrkennedy baronies, Ferman-

agh county, and Ulster province ; 102 miles N. W. from Dublin ; comprising an area of 129 acres ; population 5,836, inhabiting 943 houses. The town is situate on an island in the river connecting the upper and lower lakes of Lough Erne, and on the adjoining mainland on both sides, which communicate with each other by 2 bridges. The public buildings are the Parish Church, Roman Catholic Church, Presbyterian and two Methodist Meeting Houses, County Court House, Prison, Infirmary, Town Hall, Royal and National Model Schools, Union Work House and two Barracks. There is a tannery and market for pork, corn and butter. Flax market on Thursday, butter and pork market on Tuesday. There is a Railway to Bundoran, a favorite watering place on the Donegal coast, distant 32 miles. An act was passed in 1873 to extend the line 23 miles, to join the Midland Railway at Sligo. The borough revenue was £2,706, expenditure £2,876, debt £9,630. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament, constituency, 408 ; rateable value of property £10,907. Three newspapers are published in the town —the Fermanagh *Mail*, Fermanagh *Reporter*, and the Enniskillen *Advertiser*.

GALWAY COUNTY OF THE TOWN AND BOROUGH.

Galway, a maritime county of a town and Parliamentary borough, in Connaught province ; situate on the north side of Galway Bay, and bounded on every other side by Galway county, 130 miles W. from Dublin; comprising an area of 24,132 acres ; population 19,843. The town built on both sides of the river that discharges the superfluous waters of Lough Corrib, three miles distant, and is crossed by three bridges, consists of the old and new towns, and the suburb of Claddagh, inhabited wholly by fishermen. The principal buildings are the Protestant Church, three Roman Catholic Churches, three Monasteries, five Nunneries, Presbyterian and Methodist Meeting Houses, the county and town Court Houses and Prisons, the County Infirmary, a Fever Hospital, an Endowed and a

Charter School, the Custom House, the Union Work-house, and two Barracks; also the Queen's College and two Reading Rooms, the Royal Galway Institute, and the Mechanic's Institute, a Model School on the national system, the terminus of the Midland Great Western Railway, at which is opened a large hotel and the County Club House. The town is governed by the high sheriff, recorder, local magistrate and a board of twenty-four commissioners, elected tri-annually, who have charge of the property of the town arising from tolls, etc., which was £2,172; expenditure £2,312. It returns two members to Parliament; constituency 1,445. Rateable value of property £32,469. The Bay of Galway is an immense sheet of water, protected from the swell of the Atlantic by the natural breakwater of the Arran Isles, and possessing great advantages for foreign trade, particularly to America. The entrance of the bay is marked by two lights, one on the South Island entrance of the South Channel, and one on Rock Island in North Channel; the South Island light is fixed, the other revolves. Arranmore Island, 498 feet above the level of the sea, was the port light-house, it is now on a rock at a convenient height above the level of the sea. Harbor receipts, £2,160 15s. 9d.; the number of vessels entered inwards in '73, was 197, of 35,013 tons; cleared outwards 146, of 22,726 tons. The exports consist chiefly of agricultural produce, wool and marble. Beautiful black marble slabs of large size are exported to London and America; mills for sawing and polishing are in the town. There are two newspapers published here, the *Vindicator* and *Express*.

There is an extensive line of quay wall, and a canal runs from the harbor through the town to Lough Corrib and Lough Mask. There are a brewery, distillery, paper mill, foundry, tanyard, several flour mills, a clog factory, and a bag factory in the town and vicinity. Salmon and sea fish are abundant. The Midland Great Western Railway extends from Dublin to Galway.

KILKENNY COUNTY OF THE CITY.

KILKENNY, an inland county of a city and Parliamentary borough, in Leinster province, 73 miles S. W. from Dublin, the Parliamentary borough, comprising an area of 17,012 acres, of which 921 are in the city, and 16,091 in the rural district; population 15,748, inhabiting 2,854 houses. The municipal borough contains only 921 acres, and 14,174 people, inhabiting 2,290 houses. The town, built on the river Nore, which is crossed by two bridges, consists of two parts, the Irish and English towns, the latter of which still retains its name, while the former has merged into that of Kilkenny. The principal buildings are the Cathedral, 2 Parish Churches, Roman Catholic Cathedral, and 6 Roman Catholic Churches, 2 Monasteries, 2 Convents, Presbyterian and Methodist Meeting Houses, an endowed school called St. John's College, a Roman Catholic College, a National Model School, and 5 ordinary National Schools, County Court House, County and City Prison and Infirmary, a Fever Hospital, the Tholsol Union, Workhouse, Barracks, Banks, etc., and Kilkenny Castle, the residence of the Marquis of Ormonde, on an eminence overlooking the valley of the Nore. The manufacture of blankets, coarse woolens and linens, has declined. Coal and black marble are raised in the neighborhood; the latter is much used for chimney pieces and ornamental purposes. There are breweries, tanneries and flour mills in the city and its vicinity. There were formerly 2 municipal corporations, that of the English town or city of Kilkenny, possessing an annual revenue of upwards of £2,000, and that of Irishtown or St. Canice, annual revenue £15; but by the provisions of the Municipal Reform Act, they are amalgamated, and return 1 member to Parliament; constituency 696; rateable value of property £33,196; borough receipts £4,773; debt £5,923; expenditures for paving, lighting and cleansing £4,734; the number of burgesses on the roll for 1873 was 266; markets on Wednesday and Saturdays. Three newspapers are published in the town, the *Moderator*, *Journal* and Kilkenny *Times*.

KINSALE BOROUGH.

KINSALE, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough. in Kinsale barony, Cork county, and Munster province; 177 miles S. W. from Dublin, comprising an area of 313 acres; population 7,050; inhabiting 716 houses. The town is built partly on the side of Compass Hill, at the mouth of the river Bandon, which is crossed by a ferry, and also by a bridge about two miles from town. Some of the streets are so steep as not to admit carriages. The public buildings are the Parish Church, a Roman Catholic Chapel, a Convent, Carmelite Friary, two Methodist Meeting Houses, Town Hall, Prison Work-House Assembly rooms and Barracks. It is supported chiefly by the resort of summer visitors and the fisheries. The fishermen are esteemed the most skillful of any in Ireland, both in their own calling, and as pilots. Kinsale is the principal station of an extensive fishing company. Kinsale returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 199; rateable valuation £5,454; the corporation revenue in '75 was £458; expenditure £583. The paving and cleansing of streets are vested in 15 commissioners under the Towns Improvement Act. Kinsale harbor is excellent, having 6 or 8 fathoms water and capable of accommodating 300 sail of vessels at a cable's length from the shore, and 14 feet at low ebb; at the mouth of the harbor its entrances are protected by Charles Fort, now a barrack; during the war it was frequently visited by men-of-war and had a government dock, but since the peace its naval importance has declined. Its commerce is checked not only by its proximity to the port of Cork, but by its isolated situation. There is a railway from Cork to Kinsale. Fairs are held on the 3d Wednesday of every month.

LIMERICK COUNTY OF THE CITY AND PARLIAMENTARY BOROUGH.

LIMERICK, a maritime county of the city and Parliamentary borough in Munster province. situated at the interior extremity of the estuary of the Shannon, be-

tween Limerick and Clare counties, 119½ miles W. S. W. from Dublin; the county of the city comprising an area of 2,074 acres, and the Parliamentary borough 33,380 acres; population of the county of the city 39,353; inhabiting 5,518 houses; population of the Parliamentary borough 49,980 persons; inhabiting 7,157 houses. The town is built on King's Island and on both sides of the Shannon, which is crossed by 5 bridges, one of which, the Wellesley bridge—a magnificent structure crossing the harbor—cost £85,000; the Shannon flowing through it in a broad and ample stream, offers advantages which few towns possess. It consists of the English and Irish towns and Newtown-Pery. The principal buildings are the Cathedral; 5 Protestant Churches; 4 Parochial, and 4 Conventual Roman Catholic Chapels; 5 Dissenting places of worship; the County and City Court House and Prisons; the Custom House; Barrington's Hospital; Fever and Lock Hospital; District Lunatic Asylum; Mount St. Vincent's Orphanage; Work-House; Saving's Bank; Chamber of Commerce; Model School; Town Hall; Flax Factory; Lace Factory; Corn and Butter Markets, and Barracks. In the Limerick lace manufactory of Forrest, of Dublin, lace is made of the finest and most costly description. There are distilleries, breweries, tanneries, foundries and flour mills. A patent slip for vessels of 500 tons, 3 ship building slips, and a floating dock where vessels of 1,000 tons can discharge. The new graving dock, adjoining the floating dock, where vessels of 1,500 tons can be repaired, is now finished at a cost of £20,000. The number of vessels entered inwards in 1873 was 544, of 125,578 tons; cleared outwards 293, of 72,437 tons. The corporation consists of 8 aldermen and 32 counselors, elected by 8 wards. The revenue of the city in 1875, from borough rates, etc., was £19,346. The expenditure for paving, cleansing, lighting, etc., was £19,872. Debt £56,819. The borough returns 2 members to Parliament; constituency 1,947; rateable property, value £100,364. The harbor at the head of the estuary of the Shannon, the noblest river in the kingdom, extends about 1,600 yards in length and

150 in breadth, with from 2 to 9 feet at low water and 19 at spring tides, which latter enables vessels of 600 tons to moor at the quays. Nearly in the middle of the harbor the Wellesley bridge crosses and has a portcullis for admitting vessels. The quayage and wharfage, on which there are five cranes, extend 1,600 yards, and cost £18,000 in the erection. A large graving dock has been built. The port is under control of commissioners. Harbor receipts £8,586. There are seven newspapers published in the city, *Limerick Chronicle*, *Limerick Reporter*, and *Vindicator*, *Munster News*, *Bassett's Daily Chronicle*, and *Guy's General Advertiser*. The great Munster fair is held on the last Thursday and Friday in June, and the last Thursday and Friday in October. Markets on Wednesday.

LISBURN BOROUGH.

Lisburn, an inland and Parliamentary borough, in Upper Massereene barony, Antrim county, and Ulster province ; 72 miles north from Dublin, comprising an area according to its manorial boundary of 231 acres, of which 27 are in Down county, and of 1,364 acres, according to its municipal boundary ; population of the Parliamentary borough 9,326, inhabiting 1,583 houses. The town is situate on the Lagan—the Lagan navigation and the Ulster railroad from Belfast to Armagh, of which it is a station on the Lagan. Its public buildings are the Parish Church, used as the Cathedral of the diocese of Down and Connor, a Chapel of Ease, a Roman Catholic Chapel, 2 Presbyterian, 3 Methodist, and 1 Quaker Meeting Houses, the Infirmary for Antrim County, a Court House, Market House, Linen Hall, and Union Work House. The Castle Gardens are open as a place of recreation. The finer kinds of linen, particularly damasks, linen thread, muslins, and diapers, are manufactured here. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency, 611. Rateable value of property £16,998; the municipal rates levied in 1875 amounted to £690. Markets on Tuesday.

LONDONDERRY COUNTY OF THE CITY AND PARLIAMENTARY BOROUGH.

LONDONDERRY, a maritime city and Parliamentary borough, in county of city and county of Londonderry and Ulster province, 144 miles N. N. W. from Dublin, comprising an area of 1,933 acres within its municipal and Parliamentary boundary; population of the city, 25,-242. The city is situate on a hill 119 feet above high water, projecting into the western side of river Foyle, four miles from its opening into Lough Foyle, and is surrounded by an ancient rampart a mile in circumference with seven gates, beyond which the buildings have been considerably extended; a square in the center from which four of the principal streets diverge, is called the Diamond. The river is crossed by an iron bridge 1,200 feet long, connecting the city with the village of Waterside. The public buildings are 1 Cathedral, 4 Churches, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, 2 Roman Catholic Churches, 6 Presbyterian, an Independent, Covenanters, 2 Methodist Meeting Houses, the Episcopal Palace, Foyle College, Magee College, Academical Institution, County and City Court House, Prison Infirmary, Gwyn's Institution, Corporation Hall, Custom House, District Lunatic Asylum, Union Work-House and Barrack. In one of the city bastions there is a pillar erected in memory of the Rev. George Walker, Governor of the city during the siege in 1689. There are several flour mills, 2 distilleries, 3 breweries, 2 foundries and 5 tan yards, with several extensive shirt factories. The city returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 1833, rateable value of property £66,884. The Municipal Government is vested in the Corporation, which consists of 6 Aldermen and 18 Counselors and 19 Borough Magistrates, appointed by the Lord Lieutenant. Revenue from borough rates, etc., £15,453; expenditure £16,156. The river Foyle possesses great natural advantages, and is navigable for large vessels up to the city. Harbor receipts £19,003; expenditure £17,430; debt £138,951. The Londonderry & Ennis-

killen Railway, the Coleraine & Derry Railway, and the Londonderry & Lough Swilly Railway, which is open to Buncrana, run along the harbor at high-water mark. The salmon-fishery of Lough Foyle is very productive, the greater part being shipped to Liverpool. Markets every week-day; flax market on Tuesday; also cattle, horse, and two grain markets. Four newspapers are published in the city; the *Journal*, *Sentinel*, *Standard*, and weekly *Journal*.

MALLOW BOROUGH.

Mallow, an inland town and Parliamentary borough, in Fermoy barony, the E. riding of Cork county, and Munster province; 150½ miles S. W. from Dublin; comprising an area of 313 acres; population 4,165; inhabiting 776 houses. It is situate on the N. side of the Blackwater, and is joined by a bridge of three arches to the suburb of Ballydaheen on the S. side, which forms a portion of the borough. The public buildings are the Parish Church, a Roman Catholic Chapel, an Independent and two Methodist Meeting Houses, National School-House, an Infirmary, Court House, Bridewell Union Work-House, Spa House, Barrack, etc. There are salt works and tanneries in the town, and several extensive flour mills in the neighborhood. The borough returns one member to Parliament; constituency 6,246. Rateable value of property £6,478. The great monthly cattle markets are held on the first Tuesday of every month, and corn markets on Tuesday and Friday. The Killarney and Fermoy railways join the Great Southern and Western at this station.

NEW ROSS BOROUGH.

New Ross, an inland town and Parliamentary borough; partly in Bantry barony, Wexford county, and partly in Ida barony, Kilkenny county, and Leinster province, 83 miles S. S. W. from Dublin; comprising an area of 544 acres; being the Parliamentary boundary which in-

cludes Rosbercon; population 6,772, inhabiting 1,113 houses. The town is situate on the side of the hill over the Barrow, 2 miles below its junction with the Nore. The wooden bridge carried away by ice has been replaced by a metal one, at a cost of £50,137, to be raised off the counties of Wexford and Kilkenny; in the centre is a swivel pillar on which a portion of the bridge is turned to admit vessels on each side. The public buildings are 2 Protestant Churches, 2 Roman Catholic Chapels, a Friary, Nunneries, Presbyterian and Methodist Meeting Houses, Fever Hospital, Dispensary and Lying-in-Hospital, Union Workhouse, Sessions House, Bridewell, Market House and Barrack. There are breweries and tan yards. The town is lighted with gas, and there are 2 news rooms. The trade of the port is, for want of railway accommodation, not improving; the landing place, on the east bank of the river, 10 miles above its junction with the Suir, where new quays have been erected at a cost of about £3,000, is from 200 to 300 yards wide, with depths of from 15 to 26 feet at low water. A brisk trade is carried on by the Barrow, which admits vessels of 600 tons register to discharge at the quay at all times of the tide and those of 800 at high springs. Vessels of small tonnage can proceed beyond the town by the Nore to Inistiogue, and by the Barrow to St. Mullins, and barges still farther to Athy, where the junction of the river with the Grand Canal affords a water communication with Dublin on the one side and Limerick on the other. The number of vessels entered inwards in 1873 was 578; tonnage 53,828; cleared, outwards, 477; tonnage 42,544. Above and below the town there is a salmon fishery. The principal exports are grain, flour, wool, butter, fowl and bacon. Town rates, etc., levied £1,028; expenditure £814; harbor revenue £926. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 218; rateable value of property £7,782. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday; butter market on Tuesdays during the season.

NEWRY BOROUGH.

NEWRY, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough, in the barony of Newry Lordship, Down, and Armagh counties, and Ulster province; 63 miles N. from Dublin; comprising within the Parliamentary boundary 2,543 acres, of which 629 are in the town, and 1,914 in the rural district; population 14,158; inhabiting 2,540 houses. It is situated near the mouth of the Newry Water, which discharges itself into Carlingford Bay, five miles from the town; there are 8 bridges, four of which are stone, and cross the river which separates the counties of Armagh and Down; the others are drawbridges over the canal. The public buildings are 2 Protestant churches, 2 Roman Catholic Chapels, one of which is the Cathedral of St. Patrick's, Dromore, the other, the Chapel of St Mary's; 4 Presbyterian, 1 Independent, and 3 Methodist Meeting Houses; 2 Convents, 2 Court Houses, 2 Bridewells, Custom House, Union Work-house, National Model School, Hospital Savings Bank, and spacious Barracks. The town is handsome and well built, of stone; the streets regular and compact, and the shops neatly fitted up and lighted with gas. Handsome markets and extensive water works have recently been erected. Along the quays are large and well built warehouses; there are several corn and flour mills, 1 brewery, 10 tan yards, 3 coach and car manufactories, iron and brass foundries, spade and shovel manufactories, and 3 large spinning mills in town. The other manufactures are linen, yarn, cotton, salt, iron, cordage, etc. The paving, lighting and cleansing of the streets are vested in 18 commissioners; the rates levied amounted to £10,814; expenditure £9,165; debt £40,000. The borough returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 1,086; rateable value of property £30,602. Carlingford Lough is navigable for 6 miles by vessels of the greatest burden at all times, and the port admits vessels of 1,000 tons to Warrenpoint, 6½ miles from the town where the larger vessels remain; but those drawing 15 feet can go up by the ship canal to the Albert basin Newry, a distance of 5 miles from the sea. A commission

has been appointed for improving Lough Carlingford, and removal of the bar; the estimated cost is £80,000; Barges ply by the Newry canal; navigation to Lough Neagh, 32 miles distant inland; the Newry Navigation Company have the management of the port and canal, the latter of which extends along the west side of the river. The income of the port amounts to £6,000 per annum; the number of vessels entered inwards in 1873 was 1,576; tonnage £265,970; cleared outwards 795; tonnage £200,802; the principal exports are grain, provisions, cattle, eggs, flax, linens, and butter. The Belfast Junction Railway passes within 1 mile of the town and with the Newry and Armagh, and the Newry Warrenpoint, and the Rostrevor Railway greatly facilitates the trade of the town. The Newry and Greenore Railway connects the Newry and Armagh line with the deep water harbor of Greenore in Carlingford Lough. Markets on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday. The Newry Commercial *Telegraph*, and the Newry *Reporter*, newspapers, are published here.

PORTARLINGTON BOROUGH.

Portarlington, an inland town and Parliamentary borough, partly in Portnahinch barony, Queen's county, and partly in Upper Philipstown barony, King's county, Leinster province, 44½ miles W. S. W. from Dublin, comprising an area in Queen's county of 500 acres; population 2,706, inhabiting 537 houses. The town, which stands on the Barrow, here crossed by two bridges, had its ancient name of Cultordy changed into its present by the proprietor, Lord Arlington, who prefixed the term port in consequence of its being a landing place on the river. The public buildings are two Protestant Churches, a Roman Catholic Chapel, a Methodist Meeting House, and a Market House. A branch of the Grand canal passes near it. The town is the residence of many respectable families, some of which are descendants of French and Flemish refugees settled here at the Restoration, when the town took its rise. Its chief manufac-

tures are malt, soap and candles. The borough returns one member to Parliament; constituency 141. Rateable value of property £4,330. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday.

SLIGO BOROUGH.

Sligo, a maritime town, and formerly a Parliamentary borough, in Carbury barony, Sligo county, and Connaught province, 131 miles N. W. from Dublin, comprising an area of 3,001 acres, of which 407 are in the town, and 2,594 in the rural district; population 12,206. It is situate near the mouth of the Garrogue, which is crossed by 2 bridges and discharges itself into the Sligo Bay. The public buildings are the Ulster Bank, a Model National School, both beautiful edifices, 2 Churches, a Roman Catholic Chapel, 1 Friary or Abbey Church, Presbyterian, Independent, and 2 Methodist Meeting Houses; County Court House, Prison, Infirmary, a Fever Hospital, Union Work House, and a Lunatic Asylum, the latter standing on a prominent position outside the town. The Town Hall was erected in 1866; the ground floor consists of an Exchange, Free Library and Reading room, Chamber of Commerce, Borough Court and Council Chamber, and other offices; the upper floor comprises a large Assemby Room, 74 feet by 32, also a room for the Harbor Commissioners, Town Clerks, and other offices. To defray the expense a sum of £2,700 was granted from the reproductive loan fund of the county, and the balance, £2,300, was raised by voluntary subscription. There is a salmon fishery in the river, the property of Capt. Abraham Martin. The corporation consists of 6 Aldermen and 18 Counselors, elected from three Wards. The number of burgesses on the roll in 1872 was 352; the revenue of the borough in 1875 was £11,048. The expenditure for paving, cleansing, lighting, etc., was £7,949; rateable valuation £17,975. The port is under the control of Harbor Commissioners, elected every 3 years. Harbor receipts £4,990, 15s. 8d. The number of vessels entered inwards was 528, tonnage 78,124; cleared out-

wards 474, tonnage 65,200. As a seaport, Sligo is the most important on the north-west coast of Ireland, exporting annually a large quantity of cured provisions, besides the cattle and agricultural produce of the surrounding districts. Its trade is chiefly carried on with Liverpool, Glasgow and Londonderry, two steamers leaving weekly for these ports. Three newspapers are published in the town, the Sligo *Champion*, Sligo *Chronicle*, and Sligo *Independent*, every Saturday. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday. Fairs on 27 March, 7 May, 4 July, 11 August, 9 October, and also first Tuesday in each month.

TRALEE BOROUGH.

TRALEE, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough, in Trughanacmy barony, Kerry County, and Munster province, 181½ miles W. S. W. from Dublin, comprising an area of 512 acres; population 9,506, inhabiting 1,385 houses. The town is situate on the river Lee, about a mile from Tralee Bay, an inlet of Ballyheigue Bay. Its public buildings are a Church, two Roman Catholic Churches, and Friary Church, two Nunneries, Monastery, with School attached, Presbyterian, Independent, and Methodist Meeting Houses, the County Court House, Prison, and Infirmary, Merchants' Corn Exchange, Town Hall, Railway Station, Union Work-House, and Barracks. The corporation is now extinct, and its property vested in the Lighting and Cleansing Commissioners. The Revenue of the Borough was £2,088; expenditure £2,625. The Borough returns one Member to Parliament; constituency 322. Rateable value of property £11,764. A brisk trade in grain, flour, bacon and butter, is carried on. The value of imports is £150,000; exports £200,000. Harbor receipts £1576, 7s. 10d. The number of vessels entered inwards was 348, tonnage 46,269; cleared outwards 107, tonnage 15,066. By the ship canal vessels discharge at the basin, within a few hundred yards of the town; large vessels discharge at the Samphire Island, 8 miles westward. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday. Two newspapers published here—the *Chronicle* and *Kerry Evening Post.*

WATERFORD COUNTY OF THE CITY, AND PARLIAMENTARY BOROUGH.

WATERFORD, a county of a city, and Parliamentary borough, in Munster province, 97 miles S. S. W. from Dublin, comprising an area of 10,059 acres; population, 29,979, inhabiting 4,558 houses. The city is the south-west bank of the Suir, and is connected with its north suburb of Ferrybank by a wooden bridge of 39 arches, 832 feet long. The public buildings are Cathedral, two Parochial Churches, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, five Roman Catholic Chapels, four Convents, Presbyterian, Baptist, Independent, Methodist, and Friend's Meeting Houses, the Protestant Episcopal Palace, Roman Catholic College of St. John's, Diocesan, District, Model, National, Blue Coat and Christian Brothers' Schools, the City and County Court Houses and Prisons, District Lunatic Asylum, Fever Hospital, Union Workhouse, Town Hall, Custom House, the Savings Bank, Military Barracks, and Reginald's Tower. There are breweries, foundries, and several flour-mills in the neighborhood. The corporation consists of 10 Aldermen and 30 Counselors, elected from the five wards. The number of burgesses on the roll in 1863 was 709. The city returns two members to Parliament; constituency 1,297. Borough receipts £18.319. Expenditures for lighting, cleansing, paving, &c., £17,967; Debt, £76,650. The net annual value of property under the tenant Valuation Act is £53,214.

Seven newspapers are published in the city—the *Mail*, *News*, *Chronicle*, *News Letter*, *Standard*, Munster *Express*, and *Citizen*. Markets on Monday, Wednesday, Thursday and Saturday. The harbor of Waterford is formed by the channel of the Suir from the city to its confluence with the Barrow, and from thence by the joint estuary of these rivers to the sea, a distance of 15 miles; the entrance, 2½ miles wide, which is well lighted by a bright fixed light on Hook £ower, 139 feet above the sea, and by a red light on Dunmore pier, 46 feet high, and two leading lights at Duncannon, also a light on the Spit

of Passage. Vessels of 2,000 tons can discharge at the quays. The navigation is continued in the Suir by barges to Clonmel, and in the Barrow by sailing vessels to New Ross, and thence by barges up that river to Athy, and up the Nore to Inistiogue. On the Kilkenny side of the river there is a ship building yard, with patent slip, graving bank and dock.

Harbor receipts, £14,075. 16s. 7d. The exports are almost wholly agricultural.

WEXFORD BOROUGH.

Wexford, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough, in Forth barony, Wexford county and Leinster province, 93 miles S. from Dublin, comprising an area of 483 acres; population 12,077; inhabiting 2,127 houses. It is situated on the south bank of the Slaney, where that river discharges itself into Wexford harbor. Above the town the river is crossed by a bridge 1,500 feet long. The public buildings are 2 Protestant Churches, of the Establishment; 3 Catholic Chapels, 1 Friary, 5 Nunneries, Presbyterian, Methodist, and Friends' Meeting Houses, a Catholic College, National and Brothers' Schools, the County Court House, Prison, Infirmary, and Fever Hospital, Town Hall, Union Work House, a Barrack and Theater. Connected with the Mechanics' Institute and Literary Society is an interesting museum of natural history, etc. The manufacture of malt is carried on, and the herring, oyster and salmon fisheries employ many persons. There is a distillery, 3 breweries, and 2 steam corn mills. It returns 1 member to Parliament; constituency 508; rateable value of property £15,483. The assizes for the county are held in the town. The corporation holds a Court of Conscience for sums under £2. Number of burgesses 183; borough receipts £1,373; expenditure (1875), for cleansing, paving, and lighting, £1,366; debt £766.

The harbor is of an oblong shape, formed by the estuary of the Slaney, extending eight miles from north to south, or parallel with the coast, and four miles wide,

comprising an area of 14,000 acres. It is admirably situated for commerce, from its proximity to England, and being at the entrance to the Irish Channel; but those advantages are not available in consequence of a bar at the mouth having only twelve feet of water at high tides, which limits the traffic. Harbor receipts £4,461. The number of vessels entered inwards in 1873 was 705; tonnage 7,927. The quays extend 3,000 feet, and there is a dock yard and patent slip. Important facilities for commerce will soon be afforded by the completion of the pier at Rosslare, in the South bay of Wexford, which will admit large vessels lying along side at low water. A line of railway connecting the pier with the town of Wexford and the railway system of the country, has been completed. Four newspapers are published here, the *Constitution*, *Independent*, *People*, and County Wexford *Express*. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday.

YOUGHAL BOROUGH.

YOUGHAL, a maritime town and Parliamentary borough, in Imokelly barony, Cork county, and Munster province; 157 miles southwest from Dublin; comprising an area of 345 acres; population, 6,081, inhabiting 1,070 houses. It is situate on the acclivity of a hill, on the west side of the estuary of the Blackwater, over which river there is a wooden bridge, 1,787 feet long. The public buildings are 2 Churches of the Establishment, a Catholic Chapel, two Convents, Independent, Methodist and Friends' Meeting Houses, Fever Hospital and Dispensary, Town House, in which are Assembly rooms, a Prison and a Barrack, etc. Sir Walter Raleigh's residence, now called Raleigh's House, is still maintained nearly in its original state. Coarse earthenware and bricks are manufactured. The salmon fishery of the Blackwater is very extensive. The number of vessels registered 259; tonnage 21,883; the paving, lighting and cleansing the streets is vested in twenty-one commissioners; the revenue (1875) £2.563; expenditure £2,588; debt £4,076; rateable value of property £9,540. It returns one mem-

ber to Parliament; constituency 257. The exports principally grain, flour and provisions. A fair is held on the first Monday in every month.

ECCLESIASTICAL DIVISIONS.

PROVINCE OF ARMAGH.

Comprising the Dioceses of Armagh, with the eight Suffragan Dioceses, of Meath, Derry, Clogher, Raphoe, Down and Connor, Kilmore, Ardagh, and Dromore.

I.—DIOCESE OF ARMAGH.

Including the entire County of Louth, almost the whole of Armagh, a great part of Tyrone, and a part of Derry.

PARISHES.—Armagh, Dundalk, Arboe, Ardee, Ardtrea, Aghaloo, Ballinderry, Ballymakenny, Ballymacnab, Beragh, Carlingford, Clogher, Clonoe, Clonfeacle, Collon, Coagh, Cooley, Creggan L., Creggan U., Darver, Derrynoose, Desertcreight and Derryloran, Donaghmore, Dromintee or Forkhill, Dundalk, Dungannon, Dunleer, Eglish, Erigalkeiran, Foghart, Forkhill, Kilcurley, Kildress, Killeighthill, Killevy U., Killevy L., Kilmore, Kilran, Knockbridge, Lordship, Loughall, Loughgilly, Louth, Lissan, Magherafelt, Ardtree N., Pomeroy, Portadown, Stewartstown, Tallanstown, Tanderagee, Termon, Termonmaguist, Termonfeckin, Togher, Tullyallen, Tynan, Clogherrey, St. Peter's, Drumglass, Killyman, Tulleyniskin.

II.—DIOCESE OF MEATH.

Includes Meath, Westmeath, the greater part of Kings' County, and a small portion of Longford and of Cavan.

PARISHES.—Mullingar, Navan, Ardcath, Athboy, Ballymore, Ballynacargy, Balliver, Batterstown, Blacklion, Bohermein and Cortown, Carolanstown, Carnaross,

Castlejordan, Castlepollard, Castletown, Kilpatrick, Castletowndelvin, Castletown-geoghegan, Clara, Clonmellon, Collinstown, Crosses, Curraha, Drogheda, St. Mary's, Drumcondra, Drumraney, Duleek, Dunderry, Dysart, Grangegeeth, Kells, Kilberry, Kilbride, Killucan, Kingscourt, Kilskeere, Longwood, Moyvore, Monalvy, Navan, Oldcastle, Killina, Ratoath, Rosnaree, Summerhill, Trim, Tubber, Turbotstown, Dunboyne, Dunshaughlin, Eglish, Frankford, Johnstown, Kilkenny, West, Kilbeggan, Kildalkey, Kilmeson, Kinnegad, Lobinstown, Milltown, Moynalty, Multifarnham, Nobber, Rahan, or Rathmolion, Rochfortbridge, Skryne, Slane, Stamullen, Tullamore, Turin, Moynalty, Churchtown, Kildorkey, Kilbeggan.

III.—DIOCESE OF DERRY.

Includes nearly the whole of Londonderry, part of Donegal, and a large portion of Athlone.

PARISHES.—Templemore, Ardstraw E., Ardstraw W., Bodoney U., Bodoney L., Ballymacreen, Ballyscullion, Balteagh, Drumachose, and Aghanlos, Banagher, and part of Bovevagh, Burt and Inch, Cappagh, Cloncha, Clonleigh, Camrus, Clonmany, Culdaff, Cumber U. and Learmont, Dysertegny, and L. Fahan, Desertmartin, and Kilcronaghan, Donagh, Donagheady, and Leckpatrick, Donaghmore, Drumragh, Dunboe, Macosquin, and Aghadooweny, Dungiven, and part of Bovegagh, Errigle, Faughanvale, Glendermott, and Lower Cumber, Iskaheen, Kilrea, and Desertoghill, Longfield, Maghera, Moville U. and L., Tamlaght O'Crilly, Tamlaght, Ard, Termoneeney, and part of Maghera, Termonamongan, Urney.

IV.—DIOCESE OF CLOGHER.

Includes Monaghan, almost the whole of Fermanagh, a large portion of Tyrone, with portion of Donegal and Louth.

PARISHES.—Clontibert, Monaghan, Aughabog, Augnamullen E., Augnamullen W., Black Bog, Brookborough, Carrickmacross, Cleenish, Clogher, Clones, Currin,

Derrygonnelly, Donacavy, Donagh, Donaghmoyne, Dromore, Drummully, Drumsnat and Kilmore, Ematris, Enniskillen, Errigle Truagh, Garrison, Inniskeen, Innismacsaint, Killaney, Killeevan, Killskerry, Magheracloone, Maguire's Bridge, Muckno, Pettigo, Rosslea, Tempo, Tullycorbet, Tydavnet, Tyholland, Whitehill.

V.—DIOCESE OF RAPHOE.

Includes nearly the whole of Donegal except the Barony of Inishowen.

PARISHES.—Conwal and Leck, Allsaints Raymochy, Taughboyne, Ardara, Aughnish and Aughaninshin, Clondahorky, Clondavadog, Drimholme, Gartan, Glencolumkille, Inishkeel, Inver, Kilbarron, Kilcar, Killymard, Kilteevouge, Killebegs and Killaghtee, Killegarven and Tully, Kilmacrenan, Lettermacaward, Mevagh, Raphoe, Stranorlar, Tawnawilly, Templecrone and Arranmore Island, Tullaghbegley-east, Raymunterdony and Tory Island, Tullaghbegley-west.

VI.—DIOCESES OF DOWN AND CONNOR.

PARISHES.—St. Peter's, Fall'sroad, St. Mary's, Chanerlane, St. Patrick's, Donegal, St. Malachy's, Alfred St., Ballymacarret, Ahoghill, Ards Lower, Armoy, Aghagallon, Ballee and Ballyculter, Ballycastle, Ballygalget, Ballymena, Ballymoney, Bright, Bryansford, Carrickfergus, Coleraine, Culfeightrin, Cushendall, Derryaghy, Down, Drummaul, Duncane, Dunloy, Dunsford, Glenarm, Glenavy, Glenravil or Skerry, Greencastle, Holywood, Innispollan or Cushenden, Kilclief, Kilcoo, Kilmegan, Kilmore, Lorne, Lisburn, Loughanisland, Loughgiel, Mourne Lower, Mourne Upper, Newtownards, Portaferry or Ballyphilip, Portglenone, Portrush, Rasharkan, Rathlin Island or Saintfield, Saul, Tyrella.

VII.—DIOCESE OF KILMORE.

Includes nearly all of Cavan and parts of Leitrim and Fermanagh.

PARISHES.—Urney and Aunageliff, Castlerahan and

Munterconnaught, Anna, Ballaghameehan, Ballinacleragh, Ballinamore, Ballintemple, Carrigallen, Castletara, Crosserlough, Denn, Drumgoon, Drumlane, Drumlease, Drumreilly Upper, Drumreilly Lower, Drung, Glenade, Glenfarn, Glengevlin, Innismagrath, Kildallen, and Tomregan, Killinagh, Killiann, Killargy, Killasnet, Killesher, Killeshandra, Killinkere, Kilmore, Kilsherdany, Kinawley, Kinlough, Knockbride, Knockninny, Laragh, Lavey, Lurgan, Moyhologue and Kilmainham, Mullagh, Templeport.

VIII.—DIOCESE OF ARDAGH.

Includes nearly all of Longford, the greater part of Leitrim, and portions of King's county, Westmeath, Roscommon, Cavan and Sligo.

PARISHES.—Templemichael and Ballymacormac, Ballyloughloe and Kilcleigh or Moate Calry, Abbelara, Annaduff, Ardagh and Moydow, Aughavass, Ballymahon, or Shrule, Bornacoola, Cashel, Clonbroney, Clongish, Clongish, Clonmacnoise, Cloone, Cluan a Donald and Killashee, Columbkille, Dromard, Drumlish, Drumlummon North and Loughdruff, Drumlummon South and Ballymac Hugh, Fenagh, Gallen and Reynagh, Gortleteragh, Granard, Kilcommogue, Kilglass or Lagan, Killenumera and Killery, Killoe, Kilronan, Kiltoghert, Kiltubbrid Mary's St., Maustrim, Milane and Ballynahown, Mohill, Murhane, Rathaspic and Russagh, Rathcline, Scrabby and Columbskille East, Street, Tashing, Taghshiney and Abbeyderg, Wheera and Tisaron.

IX.—DIOCESE OF DROMORE.

Includes parts of the counties of Down, Armagh, and Antrim.

PARISHES.—Newry, Aghaderg, Armaclone, Banbridge, Clonallen, Clonuff, Dromara, Dromgoolan Lower, Dromgoolan Upper, Dromore, Drumgath, Dunmore, Glenn, Kilbroney, Lurgan, Maheralin, Seagoe, Tullyish.

PROVINCE OF DUBLIN.

Comprising the dioceses of Dublin, with the three Suffragan dioceses of Kildare and Leighlin, Ossory and Ferns.

X.—DIOCESE OF DUBLIN.

Includes Dublin, nearly all Wicklow, and portions of Kildare, Queen's County, Carlow and Wexford.

PARISHES.—St. Mary's, St. Andrew's, St. Audeon's, St. Catharine's, St. James', St. Kevin's, St. Laurence O'Toole's, SS. Michael and John's, St. Michan's, St. Nicholas without, SS. Peter and Paul's, St. Agatha, Arklow, Ashford and Glenealy, Athy, Baldoyle, Howthe, Ballymore, Eustace, Balrothery, Blackditches, Blanchardtown, Blessington, Eadstown and Kilbride, Booterstown, Blackrock and Dundrum, Bray, Bray Little, Cabinteely, Castledermot, Albridge and Straffan, Clontarf, and Coolock, Dalky and Ballybrack, Donabate, Dunlavin, Enniskerry, Finglass and St. Margaret, Garristown, Glendelough, Irishtown and Donnybrook, Kilbride, Kilcullen, Kilquade, Kingstown and Monkstown, Lusk, Maynooth and Leixlip, Narraghmore, Naul, Newbridge, Palmerstown, Lucan and Clondalkin, Rathdrum, Rathfarnham, Rathmines and Miltown, or SS. Mary and Peter, Rathgar, Rolestown, Rush, Saggart, Rathcoole and Newcastle, Sandyford, Skerries, Swods, Wicklow.

XI.—DIOCESE OF KILDARE AND LEIGHLIN.

Includes the County of Carlow, and parts of Kildare, Queen's County, King's County, Kilkenny, Wicklow and Wexford.

PARISHES.—Carlow, Abbyleix, Allen and Milltown, Arles and Ballylinan, Bagnalstown, Ballinakill, Ballon and Rathoe, Ballyadams, Ballyfin, Baltinglass, Balyna, Borris, Caragh, Carbury, Clane, Clonaslie, Clonegal, Clonbullogue, Clonmore, Curraghcamp, Doonane, Edenderry, Graig, Hacketston, Killock, Kildare and Rathangan, Kill and Lyons, Killeigh and Geashill, Killeshin, Leigh-

linbridge, Maryborough, Monasterevan, Mountmellick, Mountrath, Mullin's St. Myshall, Naas, Newbridge, Paulstown and Goresbri'dge, Philipstown, Raheen, Rathvilly, Rhode, Rosenallis, Sancroft, Stradbally, Tinryland and Tullow.

XII.—DIOCESE OF OSSORY.

Includes Kilkenny and portions of King's and Queen's Counties.

PARISHES.—St. John's, St. Mary's, Aghavoe, Ballycullan, Ballyhale, Ballyragget, Borris-in-Ossory, Callan, Castlecomer, Castletown, Clara, Clough, Comeries, Conahy, Deansfort, Dunamanagan, Durrow, Freshfort, Galway, Glenmore, Gowran, Huginstown, Inistiogue, Johnstown, Kilmacow, Lisdowney, Mooncoin, Muckalee, Mullinavat, Rathdowney, Rosbercon, Seirkieran, Skirk, Slieverue, St. Canice's, St. Patrick, Templeorum, Thomastown, Tullaherin, Tullaroan, Urlingford, Windgap.

XIII.—DIOCESE OF FERNS.

Includes the entire of Wexford and part of Wicklow.

PARISHES.—Enniscorthy, Camolin, Adamstown, Annacura, and Killaveny, Ballindaggin, Ballygarrett, Bannow, Blackwater, Bree, Castle Bridge, Clongeen, Cloughbawn, and Poulpeasty, Grossabeg, Cushenstown, Davidstown, Ferns, Glynn, Gorey, Kilanerin, Kilmore, Kilnesh, Lady's Island, Litter, Monageer, Moylass, and Ballymore, New Ross, Newtownbarry, Oylegate, Oulart, Piercetown, Poulfur, and Templetown, Ramsgrange, and Duncannon, Rathangan, Rathnure, and Templedigan, Suttons, and Hoerwood, Taghmon, Tagoat, Tinturn, Tomacork, Wexford.

PROVINCE OF CASHEL.

Comprising the Archdiocese of Cashel and Diocese of Emly, with Suffragan dioceses of Cork, Killaloe, Kerry, Limerick, Waterford and Lismore, Cloyne, Ross and Kilfenora.

XIV.—ARCHDIOCESE OF CASHEL AND DIOCESE OF EMLY.

Includes the chief part of Tipperary and part of Limerick Counties.

PARISHES.—Thurles, Annecarthy, Ballinahinch, Ballingarry, Ballybricken, Ballylander, Ballyna, Bansha and Kilmoyler, Boherlahan and Dualla, Borrisaleigh, Coherconlish, Cappamore, Cappawhite, Cashel, Clerihan, Clonoulty, Donoskeigh, Doone, Drangan, Drom and Inch, Emly, Fethard and Killusty, Galbally, Golden, Gurtnahoe, Holycross, Hospital, Kilbenny, Kilcummin, Killenaul, Killteely, Knockany, Knocklong, Lattan and Cullin, Loughmore, Moycarkey, Moyne, Mullinahone, Murrow and Boher, Newinn, Newport, Tipp. Pallasgreen, Templemore, Tipp. Ulla and Solohead, Upperchurch.

XV.—DIOCESE OF CORK.

Includes Cork and a part of Kerry.

PARISHES.—Cathedral, North Parish, SS. Peter and Paul, St. Patrick's, South Parish, Ballincollig, Ballinhassig, Bandon, Bantry, Blackrock, Coheragh, Carrigaline, Clountead and Ballymartle, Coursey's Country, Douglass, Drimalogue, Dummanway, Glanmire, Glauntane, Inishannon, Enniskean, Iveleary, Kilbrittain, Kilmichael, Kilmurry, Kinsale, Murragh, Muinteravare, Ovens, Passage, Skull West, Skull East, Tracton, Watergrass Hill.

XVI.—DIOCESE OF KILLALOE.

Includes portions of Clare, Tipperary, King's County, Galway, Limerick and Queen's County.

PARISHES.—Nenagh, Newmarket, Aghancon, Birr, Borrisokane, Broadford, Burgess and Youghal, Callaghan's Mills, Carrigaholt, Castleconnell, Castletown-arra, Clare Abbey, Cloghprior and Mousea Clondegad, Clonnish, Cloughjordan, Corofin, Couraganeen, Crusheen, Doonass, Doora, Dunkerin, Dysart, Ennis, Feacle Lower, Inagh Inch and Kilmaley, Kilbarron, Kildysart, Kilfarboy, Kilkee, Kilkeedy, Killaloe, Killanena, Killard, Kil

liney, Kilmacduane, Kilmichael, Kilmurry, Ibricknane, Kilmurry, McMahon, Kilnanave and Templederry, Kilnoe, Kilnish, Kinnetty, Kyle and Knock, Lorrha and Durrha, Ogonnelloe, Quin, Roscrea, Scariff and Moynoe, Shinrone, Silvermines, Six-mile-bridge, Tulla, Toomavara.

XVII.—DIOCESE OF KERRY.

Includes Kerry and part of Cork.

PARISHES.—Killarney, Abbedorney, Aghadoe, Aghavallen, Ardfort, Ballinvoher and Cappaclough, Ballyheigue, Ballymac Elligot, Brosna, Cahirciven, Castle-ireland, Dingle, Drishane, Dromod, Dromtariff, Duagh, Glenbehy, Keelmachedor, Kenmare, Lilaconenagh, Kilcaskan, Kilcaskan South, Kilcatherine, Kilcrohane East, Kilcrohane West, Kilcummin East, Kilcummin West, Kilcolman, Kileentierna, Kilgarvan, Killaha, Killcarah, Killiney, Killorglin, Killtalagh, Killury, Kilmeen, Kilnamanagh, Kilnaughten, Knockane, Lisselton, Listowel, Molahiffe, Murher and Knuckanaru, Prior, Tralee, Tuosist, Valentia.

XVIII.—DIOCESE OF LIMERICK.

Includes Limerick and a small portion of Clare.

PARISHES.—St. John's, St. Michael's, Abbeyfeals, Adare, Ardagh, Ardpatrick, Askeaton, Athea, Ballingarry, Ballygran, Banniogue, Bruff, Bulgaddin, Cappagh, Colmanswell, Coolcappa, Cratloe, Croagh, Croom, Donaghmore, Dromin, Drumcolliher, Effin, Fedamore, Feenagh, Glenroe, Glin, Kildimo, Kilfinane, Killeedy, Kilmallock, Knockaderry, Longhill, Mahoonagh, Manister, Monegea, Mungret, Newcastle, Parteen, Patrick's Well, Rathkeale, Rockhill, St. Mary's, St. Munchin's, St. Patrick's, Shanagolden, Stonehall, Templeglantane, Tournafulla.

XIX.—DIOCESES OF WATERFORD AND LISMORE.

Includes Waterford and parts of Tipperary and Cork.

PARISHES.—Trinity, Within, St. John's, Ballygunner,

Abbeyside, Aglish, Ardfinnan, Ardmore, Ballyduff, Ballylooby, Ballyneale, Ballyporeen, Caher, Cappoquin, Carrickbeg, Carrick-on-Suir, Clashmore, Clogheen, Clonmel, St. Peter's and St. Paul's, Dungarvan, Dunhill and Fennor, Four-mile-water or Newcastle, Gammon's Field or Kileash, Irishtown, St. Mary's and Abbey, Kilgobinet, Kill and Newton, Killrossanty and Fews, Knockanure and Kilwatermoy, Lismore, Modeligo, Passage, Portlaw, Powerstown, Rothcormack and Clonee, Ring and Old Parish, St. Patrick's, Slievegue, Stradbally and Ballylaneen, Fallow, Tramore, Trinity Without or Ballybricken.

XX.—DIOCESE OF CLOYNE.

Includes a large portion of Cork.

PARISHES.—Queenstown, Fermoy, Aghabulloge, Aghada, Aghinagh, Aankissy, Ballinamona, Ballyclough, Ballyhea, Ballymacoda, Ballvourney, Blarney, Buttevant, Carrigtoohill, Castlelyons, Castlemagner, Castletownroche, Charleville, Clondrohid, Clonmeen, Cloyne, Conna, Doneraile, Donoughmore, Freemount, Glanworth, Glountane, Genagh, Imogeela, Inscarra, Kanturk, Kildorrery, Killeagh, Kilworth, Liscarrol, Lisgoold, Macroom, Mallow, Mitchelstown, Middleton, Newmarket, Rathcormack, Rock, the Shandrum, Tuonadronien, Youghal.

XXI.—DIOCESE OF ROSS.

Includes part of Cork.

PARISHES.—Skibbereen, Kilmacabea, Ardfield, Aughadown, Barryroe, Castlehaven, Clonakilty, Kilmeen, Rath, and the islands of Cape Clear and Sherkin, Roscarberry, Timoleague, and Clogach.

PROVINCE OF TUAM.

Comprises the Archbishopric of Tuam, and the seven dioceses of Tuam, Clonfert, Achonry, Elphin, Kilmacduagh and Kilfenora, Killala and Galway.

XXII.—DIOCESE OF TUAM.

Includes nearly all of Mayo, portion of Galway, and part of Roscommon.

PARISHES.—Aughaval, Tuam, Abbeyknockmoy, Achill, Adagool and Liskeevy, Annagh, Annadown, Arran Island, Athenry, Aughagower, Balla and Manulla, Ballinakil and Inishbotin, Ballinrobe, Becan, Barriscarra and Ballintober, Boyounagh, Burrisoole, Clare Island, Cong, Crossbogue and Tagheen, Donoghpatrick and Kilcoona, Dunmore, Eglish, Ballyhane and Breaghwy, Islandeady and Glen Island, Kilcolman, Kilcommon and Robeen, Kilconly and Kilbannon, Kildacomogue, Kilgeever, Kilkerrin and Clonbern, Killanin, Killeen, Killererin, Killescobe, Killursa and Killower, Kilmainmore, Kilmolara, Kilmoylan and Cummer, Kiltulla, Kilvine, Knock and Aghamore, Lackagh, Mayo and Roslea, Moore, Moylough, Moyrus, Omey and Ballindoon, Party, Ross, Roundstone, Spiddal, Templetogher, Turlough.

XXIII.—DIOCESE OF CLONFERT.

Includes Galway, Roscommon and King's County.

PARISHES.—Loughrea, Tynagh, Abbeygormacan and Killoran, Aughrim and Kilconnel, Ballymacword and Clonkeenkerril, Ballynakill Lower, Ballynakill Upper, Bullane, Grange and Killaun, Confert, Donanaghta and Meelick, Clontuskert, Creagh and Kilcloony, Duniry and Kilnelaghan, Fahy and Kilquane, Tohenagh and Kilgerrill, Killeomckney, Kilconieran and Lickerrig, Kilcooley and Leitrim, Killalaghtan and Kilrickill, Killimorbologue and Tiranascragh, Killimordally and Kiltulla, Kilmalanogue and Lickmolassy, Kilnadeema and Kilteskill, Lusmagh, Oghill and Kiltormer, Taghmacconnell.

XXIV.—DIOCESE OF ACHONRY.

Includes portions of Mayo and Sligo, and a small part of Roscommon.

PARISHES.—Castlemore and Kilcolman, Achonry, Ar-

tymass, Ballysadore and Kilvarnet, Ballymote, Bohola, Carracastle, Cloonacool, Curry, Drumrath, Kilconduff, Kilfree and Killarraght, Kilgarvan, Killasser, Killebehagh, Killedan, Kilmovee, Killoran, Kilmacteague, Kilshalvy, Kilturra, and Cloonoghill, Templemore, Toomore.

XXV.—DIOCESE OF ELPHIN.

Includes Roscommon and a large portion of Sligo and Galway.

PARISHES.—Athlone, St. Peter's and Drum, Ahascragh and Caltra, Ahamlish, Ardcarne, Athleague, Aughana, Aughrim, Ballintubber, Baslick, Boyle, Clontooskert, Creeve, Drumcliff, Dysart, Elphin, Fuerty, Geevagh, Glinsk and Kilcroan, Kilbignet, Kilbride and Kilgefin, Kilcorkey and Frenchpark, Kilglass, Kilkeevin, Killian and Kilrosan, Killucan and Killummod, Kilmore, Kilnamana and Estersnow, Kiltoom, Kiltrustan, Bumlin, Lissonuffy and Cloonfinlough, Loughglyn and Lisacull, Ogulla, Oran, Roscommon and Kilteevan, St. John's, Killenvoy and Kilmaine, Sligo, Coolery and Calry, Tarmonbarry, Townagh, Riverstown and Kilross, Tessaragh and Rahara, Tibohine and Fairymount.

XXVI.—UNITED DIOCESES OF KILMACDUAGH AND KILFENORA.

PARISHES.—Kinvarra, Ardrahan, Ballinderreen, Beagh Craughwell, Kilbeacanty, Kilcreest, Kilcornan, Kilmacduagh and Kiltartan, Kilthomas.

DIOCESE OF KILFENORA.

PARISHES.—Carron, Ennistymon, Glanaragah, Kilfenora, Kilshanny, New Quay, Touheràn, Touclea.

XXVII.—DIOCESE OF GALWAY.

All in County Galway, except Shrule, which is in the County Mayo.

St. Nicholas East, Rahoon, Claregalway, Castlegar, Kilcummin, Moycullen, Oranmore and Ballynacourty,

Rusmuck and Lettermullan, Shrule, Spiddal, St. Nicholas North, St. Nicholas South, St. Nicholas West.

XXVIII.—DIOCESE OF KILLALA.

Includes portions of Mayo and Sligo.

Backs, Kilmoremoy, Adragool, Ardah, Ballysakeery, Ballycroy, Belmullet, Castleconnor, Crossmolina, Doonfeeny and Ballycastle, Easky, Kilcommon, Erris, Kilfian, Kilglass, Killala, Kilmacshilgan, Kilmore, Ennis, Lackan, Moygawnagh, Skreen and Dromard, Templeboy.

POPULATION.

ALPHABETICAL LIST OF CITIES, COUNTIES OF TOWNS, PARLIAMENTARY BOROUGHS, MUNICIPAL TOWNS, TOWNSHIPS, AND ALL OTHER TOWNS IN IRELAND EXCEEDING 120 INHABITANTS, ACCORDING TO THE LAST CENSUS, WITH THE COUNTY IN WHICH SITUATE.

COUNTIES OF CITIES AND COUNTIES OF TOWNS MARKED *; CORPORATE BOROUGHS †; PARLIAMENTARY BOROUGHS ‡; MUNICIPAL TOWNS HAVING TOWN COMMISSIONERS ⁋; TOWNSHIPS HAVING TOWN COMMISSIONERS ¶.

Abbey, 329, Tipperary.
Abbeydorney, 256, Kerry.
Abbeyfeale, 993, Limerick.
Abbeylara, 175, Longford.
Abbeyleix, 1,247, Queen's.
Abbeyshrule, 145, Longford
Aclare, 187, Sligo.
Adare, 721, Limerick.
Aghada, Upper, 197, Cork.
Aglish, 206, Waterford.
Ahascragh, 425, Galway.
Ahenny, 206, Tipperary.
Ahoghill, 839, Antrim.
Anascaul, 252, Kerry.
Annagassan, 159, Louth.
Annalong, 180, Down.
Annsborough, 608, Down.
⁋ Antrim, 2,020, Antrim.
Ardagh, 349, Limerick.
Ardagh, 165, Longford.
Ardara, 575, Donegal.
⁋ Ardee, 2,972, Louth.
Ardfert, 192, Kerry.
Ardfinnan, 360, Tipperary.
Ardglass, 613, Down.
Ardmore, 407, Waterford.
Arklow, 5,178, Wicklow.
Arless, 128, Queen's.
*‡ Armagh, 8,946, Armagh.
Armoy, 366, Antrim.
Arthurstown, 189, Wexford.
Articlave, 217, Derry.
Arvagh, 696, Cavan.
Ashbourne, 289, Meath.
Ashbrook, 177, Roscom.
Askeaton, 1,353, Limerick.
Athboy, 861, Meath
Athea, 310, Limerick.
Athenry, 1,194, Galway.
Athleague, 219, Roscom.
‡⁋ Athlone, 6,565, Roscommon and Westmeath.
Athlumney, 140 Meath.
⁋ Athy, 4,510, Kildare.
Augher, 396, Tyrone.
⁋ Aughnacloy, 1,465, Tyrone.
Aughrim, 271, Galway.
⁋ Bagnalstown, 2,309, Carl.
Bailieborough, 1,280, Cav.
⁋ Balbriggan, 2,332, Dublin.
Baldoyle, 602, Dublin.
Balla, 453, Mayo.
Ballaghadereen, 1496, Mayo.
Ballickmoyler, 261, Queen's.
⁋ Ballina, 5,551, Mayo and Sligo.
Ballina, 272, Tipperary.
Ballinakill, 743, Queen's.
Ballinalack, 206, Westm'th.
Ballinalee, 192, Longford.
Ballinamore, 534, Leitrim.
⁋ Ballinasloe, 5,052, Galway and Roscommon.
Ballincollig, 524, Cork.
Ballindine, 271, Mayo.
Ballindrait, 156, Donegal.
Ballingarry, 873, Limerick.
Ballingarry, 339, Tipperary.
Ballinlough, 202, Roscom.
Ballinrobe, 2,408, Mayo.
Ballinspittle, 121, Cork.
Ballintemple, 1,000, Cork.
Ballintogher, 129, Sligo.
Ballintoy, 211. Antrim.
Ballintra, 468, Donegal.
Ballinunty, 953, Tipperary.
Ballitore, 446, Kildare.
Ballivor, 159, Meath.
Ballon, 157, Carlow.
⁋ Ballybay, 1,714, Monagh.
Ballyboden, 151, Dublin.
Ballybofey, 881, Donegal.
Ballyboy, 145, King's.
Ballybrittas, 160, Queen's.
Ballybunnion, 215, Kerry.
Ballycanew, 259, Wexford.
Ballycarry, 319, Antrim.
Ballycastle, 1,739, Antrim.
Ballycastle, 372, Mayo.
Ballyclare, 1,021, Antrim.
Ballyclerahan, 309, Tip.
Ballyclough, 326, Cork.
Ballycolla, 222, Queen's.
Ballyconnell, 429 Cavan.
Ballycottin, 579, Cork.
Ballycumber, 165, King's.
Ballydehob, 640, Cork.
Ballydonegan, 450, Cork.
Ballyduff, 208, Kerry.
Ballyduff, 214, Waterford.
Ballyeaston, 182, Antrim.
Ballyfarnan, 344, Roscom.
Ballygar, 487, Galway.
Ballygawley, 560, Tyrone.
Ballygorey, 151, Kilkenny.
Ballyhack, 197, Wexford.
Ballyhahill, 126, Limerick.
Ballyhaise, 227, Cavan.
Ballyhalbert, 454, Down.
Ballyhale, 255, Kilkenny.
Ballyhaunis, 542, Mayo.
Ballyheige, 257, Kerry.
Ballyhooly, 263, Cork.
Ballyhornan, 156, Down.
Ballyjamesduff, 714, Cavan.
Ballyknockan, 169, Carlow.
Ballyknockan, 278, Wickl'w.
Ballylanders, 523, Limerick.
Ballylanceen, 142, Waterf'rd.
Ballylongford, 836, Kerry.
Ballylynan, 242, Queen's.
Ballymacoda, 217, Cork.
Ballymagorry, 155, Tyrone.
Ballymaguigan, 135, Derry.
Ballymahon, 914, Lonford.
⁋ Ballymena, 7,931, Antrim.

Ballymoe, 193, Galway.
‡ Ballymoney, 2,930, Antrim.
Ballymore-Eustace, 719, Kildare.
Ballymore, 441, Westm'th.
Ballymote, 1,180, Sligo.
Ballynacarrigy, 368, Westmeath.
Ballynacorra, 396, Cork.
Ballynafauna and Clondulane, 133, Cork.
Ballynagaul, or Ringville, 386, Waterford.
Ballynahinch, 1,225, Down.
Ballyneen, 386, Cork.
Ballynoe, 208, Cork.
Ballynure, 321, Antrim.
Ballyorgan, 167, Limerick.
Ballyporeen, 616, Tip.
Ballyquin, 168, Kerry.
Ballyragget, 936, Kilkenny.
Ballyroan, 354, Queen's.
Ballysadere, 392, Sligo.
‡ Ballyshannon, 2,958, Donegal.
Ballyvaghan, 213, Clare.
Ballywalter, 702, Down.
Balrothery, 176, Dublin.
Balscadden, 140, Dublin.
Baltimore, 193, Cork.
Baltinglass, 1,241, Wickl.
Baltray, 364, Louth.
Banagher, 1,206, King's.
‡ Banbridge, 5,600, Down.
‡ Bandon, 6,131, Cork.
‡ Bangor, 2,560, Down
Bann Villa-row, 113, Down.
Bansha, 373, Tipperary.
Bantry, 2,830, Cork.
Barna, 195, Galway.
Baurroe and Feakle, 198, Clare.
‡ † Belfast, 174,412, Antrim and Down.
Belgooly, 105, Cork.
Bellaghy, 491, Derry.
Bellahy, 329, Sligo.
Bellanagare, 180, Roscom.
Bellanamallard, 285, Fermanagh.
Bellananagh, 630, Cavan.
Bellanode, 129, Monaghan.
Belleek, 327, Fermanagh.
Belmullet, 849, Mayo.
‡ Belturbet, 1,759, Cavan.
Benburb, 192, Tyrone.
Bennettsbridge, 210, Kilkenny.
Beragh, 470, Tyrone.
Bessbrook, 2,215, Armagh.
Binghamstown, 154, Mayo.
Blackrock, 562, Cork.
¶ Blackrock, 8,089, Dublin.
Blackrock, 392, Louth.
Blackwater, 231, Wexford.
Blackwatertown, 253, Armagh.
Blanchardstown, 239, Dub.
Blarney, 346, Cork.
Blennerville, 389, Kerry.
Blessington, 407, Wicklow.
Boherboy, 152, Cork.
Borris, 601, Carlow.
Borris-in-Ossory, 562, Queen's.
Borrisokane, 842, Tipp'r'ry.
Borrisoleigh, 772, Tipp'r'ry.
‡ Boyle, 3,347, Roscommon.
‡ Bray, 6,087, Wicklow and Dublin.
Bridebridge, 188, Cork.
Bridgetown, 144, Wexford.
Broadford, 273, Clare.
Broadford, 223, Limerick.
Broadway, 129, Wexford.
Brookborough, 390, Fermanagh.
Brosna, 282, Kerry.
Broughshane, 728, Antrim.
Bruff, 1,687, Limerick.
Bruree, 520, Limerick,
Buncrana, 755, Donegal.
Bundoran, 744, Donegal
Bunlahy, 129, Longford.
Bunmahon, 602, Waterford,
Burncourt, 157, Tipperary.
Bushmills, 1,008, Antrim.
Butlersbridge, 151, Cavan.
Butlerstown, 135, Cork.
Buttevant, 1,756, Cork.
Cabinteely, 226, Dublin.
Caherconlish, 432, Limerick.
Caher, 2,694, Tipperary.
Cahersiveen, 1,925, Kerry.
Caledon, 579, Tyrone.
‡ Callan, 2,387, Kilkenny.
Camlough, 224, Armagh.
Camolin, 483, Wexford.
Canpile, 145, Wexford.
Cappagh, 166, Clare.
Cappagh White, 657, Tip.
Cappamore, 975, Limerick.
Cappoquin, 1,526, Waterf.
Carlanstown, 151, Meath.
Carlingford, 971, Louth.
‡ ‡ Carlo, 7,842, Carlow and Queen's.
Carndonagh, 737, Donegal.
Carnew, 801, Wicklow.
Carnlough, 541, Antrim.
Carrickduff, 132, Carlow.
*‡ Car. Fergus, 9,397, Antrim.
‡ Carrickmacross, 2,017, Monaghan.
Carrick-on-Shannon, 1,431, Leitrim and Roscommon.
‡ Carrick-on-Snir, 7,792 Tipperary and Waterford.
Carrigaholt, 430, Clare.
Carrigaline, 329, Cork.
Carrigallen, 335, Leitrim.
Carrigans, 184, Donegal.
Carrigtohill, 700, Cork.
Carrowarren, 146, Clare.
Carrowdore, 502, Down.
*‡ Cashel, 4,562, Tipperary.
‡ Castlebar, 3,571, Mayo.
Castlebellingham, 537, L'th.
Castleblayney, 1,807, Mon.
Castlebridge, 292, Wexford.
Castlecaulfield, 185, Tyrone.
Castlecomer, 1,321, Kilk'ny.
Castleconnell, 478, Limr'ck.
Castledawson, 585, Derry.
Castlederg, 703, Tyrone.
Castledermot, 727, Kildare.
Castlefinn, 382, Donegal.
Castlegregory, 561, Kerry.
Castleisland, 1,767, Kerry.
Castleknock, 147, Dublin.
Castlelyons, 456, Cork,
Castlemaine, 179, Kerry.
Castlemartyr, 536, Cork.
Castlepollard, 932, Westm.
Castlereagh, 1,146, Roscom.
Castletown, 237, Queen's.
Castletown, 207, Westm'th.
Castletown-Bearhaven, 1,002, Cork.
Castletownroche, 801, Cork.
Castletownsend, 474, Cork.
Castlewellan, 763, Down.
Causeway, 231, Kerry.
‡ Cavan, 3,389, Cavan.
Ceelstown, 154, Cork.
Celbridge, 1,391, Kildare.
Chapelizod, 1,280, Dublin.
Charlemont, 391, Armagh.
Charlestown, 148, Armagh.
Charlestown, 709, Mayo.
Charleville, 2,482, Cork.
Cheekpoint, 214, Waterf'rd.
Churchtown, 253, Cork.
Churchtown, 138, Wexford,
Civiltown, 142, Down.
Clady, 121, Tyrone.
Clane, 266, Kildare.
Clara, 832, King's.
Clare, 877, Clare.
Claremorris, 1,103, Mayo.
Clashavodig, 326, Cork.
Clashmore, 154, Waterford.
Claudy, 205, Derry.
Clifden, 1,313, Galway.
Cloanmines, 882, Cork.
Clogh, 459, Kilkenny.
Cloghan, 274, King's.
Clogheen, 1,317, Tipperary.
Clogher, 760, Louth.
Clogher, 242, Tyrone.
Cloghjordan, 668, Tip.
Cloghmills, 144, Antrim.
Clohamon, 180, Wexford.
‡ Clonakilty, 3,568, Cork.
Clonaslee, 357, Queen's.
Clondalkin, 470, Dublin.
Clonee, 202, Meath.
Clonegall, 245, Carlow.
‡ Clones, 2,170, Monaghan.
Clonmany, 123, Donegal.
Clonmellon, 514, Westm'th.
†‡ Clonmel, 10,112, Tipperary and Waterford.
Clonroche, 324, Wexford.
¶ Clontarf, 3,412, Dublin.
Clonygowan 141, King's.
Cloondara, 166, Longford.
Cloone, 132, Leitrim.
Clough, 272, Down.
Cloyne, 1,235, Cork.
Coachford, 138, Cork.
Coagh, 526, Tyrone.
Coal Island, 598, Tyrone.
‡ ‡ Coleraine, 6,588, Derry.
Collon, 547, Louth.
Collooney, 391, Sligo.
Comber, 2,006, Down.
Cong, 364, Mayo.
Conlig, 335, Down.

Conna, 167, Cork.
Connor, 255, Antrim.
Convoy, 259, Donegal.
§ Cookstown, 3,501, Tyrone.
Coolaney, 239, Sligo.
Coole, 353, Westmeath.
Coolgreaney, 201, Wexford.
Coolock, 202, Dublin.
Coolrain, 144, Queen's.
Cooraclare, 171, Clare.
Coosheen, 151, Clare.
§ Cootehill, 1,851, Cavan.
*† ‡ Cork, 100,518, Cork.
Corrofin, 639, Clare.
Courtmacsherry, 485, Cork.
Courtown Harbour, 382, Wexford.
Cove, 272, Cork.
Craughwell, 168, Galway.
Creeslough, 154, Donegal.
Creggs, 151, Galway.
Crindle, 181, Derry.
Crinkill, 1,432, King's.
Croagh, 123, Limerick.
Crocketstown, 237, Sligo.
Crookhaven, 257, Cork.
Croom, 885, Limerick.
Cross, 129, Clare.
Crossakeel, 161, Meath.
Crossgar, 688, Down.
Crosshaven, 338, Cork.
Crossmaglen, 649, Armagh.
Crossmolina, 852, Mayo.
Crossroads, 258, Donegal.
Crumlin, 465, Antrim.
Crumlin, 204, Dublin.
Cullen, 182, Tipperary.
Cullybackey, 255, Antrim.
Curraglass, 144, Cork.
Curran, 160, Derry.
Cushendall, 470, Antrim.
¶ Dalkey, 2,584, Dublin.
Dangan, 158, Kilkenny.
Darkley, 849, Armagh.
Deansgrange, 300, Dublin.
Delgany, 264, Wicklow.
Delvin, 326, Westmeath.
Derrygonnelly, 302, Fermh.
Dervock, 358, Antrim.
Desertmartin, 163, Derry.
Dingle, 2,117, Kerry.
Doagh, 264, Antrim.
Dollingstown, 383, Down.
Donaghadee, 2,226, Down.
Donaghcloney, 142, Down.
Donaghmore, 206, Queen's.
Donoghmore, 351, Tyrone.
Donard, 318, Wicklow.
Donegal, 1,422, Donegal.
Doneraile, 1,314, Cork.
Dooega, 191, Mayo.
Doon, 366, Limerick.
Doornane, 193, Kilkenny.
Douglas, 783, Cork.
‡§ Downpatrick, 4,155, Down.
Drangan, 186, Tipperary.
Draperstown, 503, Derry.
†‡ Drogheda, 16, 165, Louth.
Dromara, 205, Down.
Dromcolliher, 652, Limer.
Dromdaleague, 204, Cork.
Dromina, 254, Cork.
Dromiskin, 152, Louth.
§ Dromore, 2,408, Down.
Dromore, 641, Tyrone.
Drum, 162, Monaghan.
Drumadd, 297, Armagh.
Drumahaire, 269, Leitrim.
Drumcondra, 207, Dublin.
Drumcondra, 178, Meath.
Drumkeeran, 381, Leitrim.
Drumlish, 369, Longford.
Drumquin, 287, Tyrone.
Drumshambo, 594, Leitrim.
Drumsna, 258, Leitrim.
Duagh, 267, Kerry.
*Dublin, 267, 717, Dublin.
Duleek, 719, Meath.
Dunboyne, 344, Meath.
Duncannon, 604, Wexford.
Dunconmick, 215, Wexford.
‡ Dundalk, 11,377, Louth.
Dundonald, 121, Down.
Dundrum, 293, Down.
Dundrum, 540, Dublin.
Dundrum, 156, Tipperary.
Dunfanaghy, 650, Donegal.
‡ Dungannon, 3,886, Tyrone.
Dungarvan, 146, Kilkenny.
‡ Dungarvan, 7,719, Waterf.
Dungiven, 755, Derry.
Dungloe, 464, Donegal.
Dunkineely, 333, Donegal.
Dunlavin, 651, Wicklow.
Dunkitt, 160, Kilkenny.
Dunleer, 528, Louth.
Dunmanway, 2,046, Cork.
Dunmore, 640, Galway.
Dunmore, 383, Waterford.
Dunmurry, 504, Antrim.
Dunnamanagh, 231, Tyrone.
Dunshaughlin, 362, Meath.
Durrow, 956, Queen's.
Durrus, 193, Cork.
Easky, 306, Sligo.
Eden, 276, Antrim.
Edenderry, 1,873, King's.
Ederney, 332, Fermanagh.
Edgeworthstown, 1,136, Longford.
Edmondstown, 138, Dublin.
Elphin, 1,051, Roscommon.
Emly, 331, Tipperary.
Emyvale, 424, Monaghan.
‡ Ennis, 6,503, Clare.
§ Enniscorthy, 5,594, Wexf.
Enniskeen, 323, Cork.
Enniskerry, 381, Wicklow.
‡ Enniskillen, 5,836, Fermh.
Ennistimon, 1,411, Clare.
Errill, 190, Queen's.
Eyerles, 137, Cork.
Eyrecourt, 747, Galway.
Factory, 140, Meath.
Farsid, 184, Cork.
Feakle, 198, Clare.
Feenagh, 140, Limerick.
Feeny, 187, Derry.
Ferbane, 419, King's.
§ Fermoy, 7,388, Cork.
Ferns, 568, Wexford.
§ Fethard, 2,106, Tipperary.
Fethard, 273, Wexford.
Fiddown, 149, Kilkenny.
Finglas, 499, Dublin.
Finnea, 193, Westmeath.
Fintona, 1,338, Tyrone.
Fisherstreet, 126, Clare.
Fivemiletown, 625, Tyrone.
Ford, 232, Wexford.
Forkhill, 165, Armagh.
Foxford, 667, Mayo.
Frankford, 669, King's.
Freemount, 205, Cork.
Frenchpark, 479, Roscom.
Freshford, 915, Kilkenny.
Galbally, 283, Limerick.
‡ Galway, 19,843, Galway.
Garristown, 253, Dublin.
Garvagh, 764, Derry.
§ Gilford, 2,720, Down.
Glandore, 322, Cork.
Glanmire, 390, Cork.
Glanworth, 673, Cork.
Glaslough, 231, Monaghan.
Glasnevin, 328, Dublin.
Glenageary, 310, Dublin.
Glenarm, 987, Antrim.
Glenavy, 261, Antrim.
Glenamaddy, 257, Galway.
Glenties, 597, Donegal.
Glenville, 263, Cork.
Glin, 883 Limerick.
Glynn, 209, Antrim.
Golden, 354, Tipperary.
Goresbridge, 446, Kilken.
§ Gorey, 2,639, Wexford.
Gort, 1,773, Galway.
Gortin, 303, Tyrone.
Gowran, 707, Kilkenny.
Gracehill, 230, Antrim.
Graiguenamanagh, 1,272, Kilkenny.
Granard, 1,811, Longford.
Grange, 173, Sligo.
Grange, 121, Tyrone.
Greencastle, 792, Antrim.
Greyabbey, 770, Down.
Greystones, 355, Wicklow.
Groomsport, 324, Down.
Gyleen, 299, Cork.
Hacketstown, 863, Carlow.
Halfway House, 166, Cork.
Hamilton's Bawn, 127, Armagh.
Headford, 870, Galway.
Herbertstown, 307, Limer'k.
Hillsborough, 885, Down.
Hilltown, 253, Down.
Hollymount, 278, Mayo.
§ Holywood, 3,573, Down.
Hospital, 696, Limerick.
Howth, 952, Dublin.
Hugginstown, 137, Kilken.
Hyde Park, 206, Antrim.
Inchigeelagh, 213, Cork.
Inishannon, 454, Cork.
Inisherone, 259, Sligo.
Inishark, 147, Mayo.
Inistiogue, 701, Kilkenney.
Innfield, 217, Meath.
Irvinestown, 787, Ferman.
Jamestown, 125, Leitrim.
Johnstown, 528, Kilkenny.
Jonesborough, 132, Armach.
Kanturk, 1,964, Cork.
Keadue, 179, Roscommon.
§ Keady, 1,815, Armagh.

Keenagh, 197, Longford.
Kells, 234, Antrim.
Kells, 290, Kilkenny.
‡Kells, 2,953, Meath.
Kenmare, 1,205, Kerry.
Kesh, 296, Fermanagh.
Kilbaha, 208, Clare.
Kilbeggan, 1, 145, Westm.
Kilcar, 280, Donegal.
Kilchreest, 161, Galway.
Kilcock, 764, Kildare.
Kilconnell, 148, Galway.
Kilcoole, 350, Wicklow.
Kilcullen, 933, Kildare.
Kildare, 1,333, Kildare.
Kildavin, 125, Carlow.
Kildimo, 184, Limerick.
Kildorrery, 407, Cork.
Kilfenora, 294, Clare.
Kilfinnane, 1,299, Limerick.
Kilgarvan, 183, Kerry.
Kilkee, 1,605, Clare.
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APPENDIX.

LETTER OF DONALD O'NEILL, KING OF ULSTER, TO JOHN, SOVEREIGN PONTIFF, WRITTEN ABOUT 1329.

To our Most Holy Father, John, by the grace of God, sovereign pontiff, we, his faithful children in Christ Jesus, Donald O'Neill, king of Ulster, and lawful heir to the throne of Ireland; the nobles and great men, with all the people of this kingdom, recommend and humbly cast ourselves at his feet, &c.

The calumnies and false representations which have been heaped upon us by the English are too well known throughout the world, not to have reached the ears of your Holiness. We are persuaded, most Holy Father, that your intentions are most pure and upright, but from not knowing the Irish except through the misrepresentation of their enemies, your holiness might be induced to look upon as truths those falsehoods which have been circulated, and to form an opinion contrary to what we merit, which would be to us a great misfortune. It is, therefore, to save our country against such imputations, that we have come to the resolution of giving to your Holiness, in this letter, a faithful description, and a true and precise idea of the real state at present of our monarchy, if this term can be still applied to the sad remains of a kingdom which has groaned so long beneath the tyranny of the kings of England, and that of their ministers and barons, some of whom, though born in our island, continue to exercise over us the same extortions, rapine and cruelties as their ancestors before them have committed. We shall advance nothing but the truth, and we humbly hope that, attentive to its voice, your Holiness will not delay to express your disapprobation against the authors of those crimes and outrages which shall be revealed. The country in which we live was uninhabited until the three sons of a Spanish prince, named Milesius, according to others Micelius, landed in it with a fleet of thirty ships. They came here from Cantabria, a city on the Ebro, from which river they called the country to which Providence guided them, Ibernia, where they founded a monarchy that embraced the entire of the island. Their descendants, who never

sullied the purity of their blood by a foreign alliance, have furnished one hundred and thirty kings, who, during the space of three thousand five hundred years and upwards, have successively filled the throne of Ireland till the time of King Legarius, from whom he, who has the honour of affirming these facts, is descended in a direct line. It was under the reign of this prince, in the year 435, that our patron and chief apostle, St. Patrick, was sent to us by Pope Celestinus, one of your predecessors; and since the conversion of the kingdom through the preaching of that great saint, we have had, till 1170, an uninterrupted succession of sixty-one kings, descended from the purest blood of Milesius, who, well instructed in the duties of their religion, and faithful to their God, have proved themselves fathers of their people, and have shown by their conduct that, although they depended in a spiritual light upon the holy apostolical see of Rome, they never acknowledged any temporal master upon earth. It is to those Milesian princes, and not to the English or any other foreigners, that the church of Ireland is indebted for those lands, possessions, and high privileges, with which the pious liberality of our monarchs enriched it, and of which it has been almost stripped, through the sacrilegious cupidity of the English. During the course of so many centuries, our sovereigns, jealous of their independence, preserved it unimpaired. Attacked more than once by foreign powers, they were never wanting in either courage or strength to repel the invaders, and secure their inheritance from insult. But that which they effected against force, they failed to accomplish in opposition to the will of the sovereign pontiff. His holiness Pope Adrian, to whose other great qualities we bear testimony, was by birth an Englishman, but still more in heart and disposition. The national prejudices he had early imbibed, blinded him to such a degree that, on a most false and unjust statement, he determined to transfer the sovereignty of our country to Henry, King of England, under whom, and perhaps by whom, St. Thomas of Canterbury had been murdered for his zeal in defending the interests of the church.

Instead of punishing this prince as his crime merited, and depriving him of his own territories, the complaisant pontiff has torn ours from us to gratify his countryman, Henry II.: and, without pretext or offence on our part, or any apparent motive on his own, has stripped us by the most flagrant injustice of the rights of our crown, and left us a prey to men, or rather to monsters, who are unparalleled in cruelty. More cunning than foxes, and more ravenous than wolves, they surprise and devour us; and if sometimes we escape their fury, it is only to drag on, in the most disgraceful slavery, the wretched remains of a life more intolerable to us than death itself. When, in virtue of the donation which has been mentioned, the English appeared for the first time in this country, they exhibited every mark of zeal and piety; and excelling as they did in every species of hypocrisy, they neglected nothing to supplant and undermine us imperceptibly. Emboldened from their

first sucesses, they soon removed the mask; and without any right but that of power, they obliged us, by open force, to give up to them our houses and our lands, and to seek shelter, like wild beasts, upon the mountains, in woods, marshes, and caves. Even there, we have not been secure against their fury; they even envy us those dreary and terrible abodes; they are incessant and unremitting in their pursuits after us, endeavouring to chase us from among them; they lay claim to every place in which they can discover us, with unwarranted audacity and injustice; they allege that the whole kingdom belongs to them of right, and that an Irishman has no longer a right to remain in his own country. From these causes arise the implacable hatred and dreadful animosity of the English and the Irish, towards each other; that continued hostility, those bloody retaliations and innumerable massacres, in which, from the invasion of the English to the present time, more than fifty thousand lives have been lost on both sides, besides those who have fallen victims to hunger, to despair and to the rigours of captivity. Hence also spring all the pillaging, robbery, treachery, treason and other disorders which it is impossible for us to allay in the state of anarchy under which at present we live; an anarchy fatal not only to the state, but likewise to the church of Ireland, whose members are now, more than ever, exposed to the danger of losing the blessings of eternity, after being first deprived of those of this world. Behold, most holy father, a brief description of all that has reference to our origin, and the miserable condition to which your predecessor has brought us. We shall now inform your holiness of the manner in which we have been treated by the kings of England. The permisson of entering this kingdom, was granted by the holy see to Henry II. and his successors, only on certain conditions, which were clearly expressed in the bull which was given them. According to the tenor of it, Henry engaged to increase the church revenues in Ireland; to maintain it in all its rights and privileges; to labour by enacting good laws, in reforming the morals of the people, eradicating vice, and encouraging virtue; and finally, to pay to the successors of St. Peter an annual tribute of one penny for each house. Such were the conditions of the bull. But the kings of England and their perfidious ministers, so far from observing them, have uniformly contrived to violate them in every way, and to act in direct opposition to them. First, as to the church lands, instead of extending their boundaries, they have contracted, curtailed, and invaded them so generally and to such a degree, that some of our cathedrals have been deprived, by open force, of more than one-half of their revenues. The persons of the clergy have been as little respected as their property. On every side we behold bishops and prelates summoned, arrested, and imprisoned by the commissioners of the king of England; and so great is the oppression exercised over them, that they dare not give information of it to your holiness. However, as they are so dastardly as to conceal

their misfortunes and those of the church, they do not merit that we should speak in their behalf.

The Irish were remarkable for their candour and simplicity; but the English have undertaken to reform us, and have been unfortunately but too successful. Instead of being, like our ancestors, simple and candid, we have become, through our intercourse with the English, and the contagion of their example, artful and designing as themselves. Our laws were written, and formed a body of right, according to which our country was governed. However, with the exception of one alone, which they could not wrest from us, they have deprived us of those salutary laws, and have given us instead a code of their own making. Great God! such laws! If inhumanity and injustice were leagued together, none could have been devised more deadly and fatal to the Irish. The following will give your holiness some idea of their new code. They are the fundamental rules of English jurisdiction established in this kingdom:

1st Every man who is not Irish, may, for any kind of crime, go to law with any Irishman, whilst neither layman nor ecclesiastic, who is Irish, (prelates excepted,) can, under any cause or provocation, resort to any legal measures against his English opponent.

2d—If an Englishman kill an Irishman perfidiously and falsely, as frequently occurs, of whatsoever rank or condition the Irishman may be, noble or plebeian, innocent or guilty, clergyman or layman, secular or regular, were he even a bishop, the crime is not punishable before our English tribunal; but on the contrary, the more the sufferer has been distinguished among his countrymen, either for his virtue or his rank, the more the assassin is extolled and rewarded by the English, and that not only by the vulgar, but by the monks, bishops, and what is more incredible, by the very magistrates, whose duty it is to punish and repress crime.

3d—If any Irishwoman whosoever, whether noble or plebeian, marry an Englishman, on the death of her husband she becomes deprived from her being Irish, of a third of the property and possessions which he owned.

4th—If an Irishman fall beneath the blows of an Englishman, the latter can prevent the vanquished from making any testamentary deposition, and may likewise take possession of all his wealth. What can be more unjustifiable than a law which deprives the church of its rights, and reduces men, who had been free from time immemorial, to the rank of slaves?

5th—The same tribunal, with the co-operation and connivance of some English bishops, at which the arch-bishop of Armagh presided, a man who was but little esteemed for his conduct, and still less for his learning, made the following regulations at Kilkenny, which are not less absurd in their import than in their form. The court, say they, after deliberating together, prohibits all religious communities, in that part of Ireland of which the

English are in peaceful possession, to admit any into them but a native of England, under a penalty of being treated by the king of England, as having contemned his orders, and by the founders and administrators of the said communities, as disobedient and refractory to the present regulation. This regulation was little needed; before, as well as since its enactment, the English Dominicans, Franciscans, Benedictines, regular canons, and all the other communities of their countrymen, observed the spirit of it but too faithfully. In the choice of their inmates they have evinced a partiality, the more shameful, as the houses for Benedictines and canons, where the Irish are now denied admittance, were intended by their founders to be asylums open to people of every nation indiscriminately. Vice was to be eradicated from amongst us, and the seeds of virtue sown. Our reformers have acted in a way diametrically opposite; they have deprived us of our virtues, and have implanted their vices amongst us, &c. &c. &c.

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